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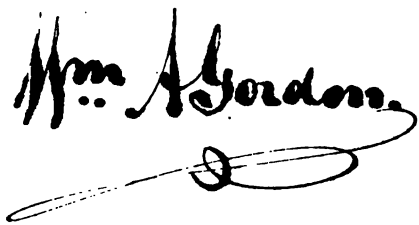
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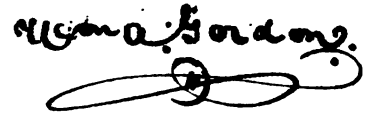

THE

MILITARY AND NAVAL

MAGAZINE

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

VOLUME I.

FROM MARCH TO AUGUST, 1833.

EDITED BY BENJAMIN HOMANS.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Thompson and Homans.

B. HOMANS.

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INDEX.

	Page.
ARMY.—Notes on the Army of the U. S.	97
Observations on the assignment of vacant quarters,	224
Memoir addressed to the President of the U. S. on the advantages possessed by the Artillery over the Infantry,	333
Orders.—No. 14. List of appointments in the Regiment of Dragoons,	82
No. 15. Relating to the stations of the Dragoons,	126
No. 20. Relative to the enlistment and pay of non-commissioned officers and privates,	151
No. 32. Assigning names to the Forts now in a course of construction,	188
No. 48. Respecting appointments to the staff,—restrictions as to extra allowances,—and leaves of absence,	313
No. 1. Respecting appointments in the staff,	363
No. 40. Promotions, appointments, casualties, &c.	364
No. 60. Ditto, ditto, ditto,	367
Organization of the,	63
Regulation respecting the medical staff of the,	62
Alliance—A short history of the continental frigate,	183
Articles of War—Strictures on the,	340
Athens—Visit to,	122
Battle of Sacket's Harbor,	17
Battle of Lützen—Translation from the "History of the thirty years' war" of Schiller,	228
Correspondence,	369
Climate of South America—Observations on the climate of the S. W. coast of America,	243, 342
Dragoons—Observations on the appointments in the corps of,	118
Deviation of the Compass—Observations on the deviation of the compass, by Rev. W. Scoresby,	216
Dimensions of ships Neptune and Pennsylvania,	58
Evening Music at sea,	373
Fastnet Rock, coast of Ireland,	59
First Campaign of an A.D.C.	153, 257
General Intelligence,	64, 127, 192
Hadley's Quadrant,	47
Hints for a Military and Naval Provident Society,	280
Island of Coquille,	12
Indian Campaign of 1832—Narrative of the expedition against the Sauks and Foxes,	321
Laws of the United States—Appropriation for certain fortifications,	79
Act in addition to the act for the gradual improvement of the Navy,	*ib.*
to improve the condition of the non-commissioned officers and privates of the Army, and to prevent desertion,	80
to exchange certain lands belonging to the Navy Yard at Brooklyn, for other lands contiguous thereto,	81
for the more perfect defence of the Frontiers,	*ib.*
Appropriations for the Naval Service, for 1833,	145
support of the Army, for 1833,	147
Engineer and Ordnance Dep'ts,	149

Page.

Live oak timber for the Navy—Report from the Secretary of the Navy, in obedience to a Res'n of the H. R. 25th Feb. 1832, 129, 193
Marine Corps—Number of officers in the, their pay and rations, . 16
Militia of the United States—Report of the Board of Officers convened by the Secretary of War, Nov. 1826, ... 65
Observations on the, by Gen. W. H. Sumner, Boston, 243, 269, 352
Memoir on Gunpowder—Extracts from a, by John Braddock, D. C. Ordnance, London, 1832, ... 89, 165, 210
Military Posts and Arsenals—List of their names and commanders, 83
Military Intelligence, ... 317, 381
Military Academy, West Point—Report of Board Visiters, June, 1833, 305
Marriages and Deaths, ... 64, 127, 192, 320
Meteorological Journal, ... 384
Midshipmen—Report of the Secretary of the Navy, in compliance with a Resolution of the H. R. 14 Feb. 1833, ... 84
Circular Order for examination of, ... 124
NAVY—Abstract of Report of Secretary of the Navy, Dec. 1832, . 14
Officers of, their pay and rations, ... 16
Lieutenants of, Abstract of their sea service, ... 39
Vessels in commission, their commanders, stations, &c. . 125
Petty Officers of, suggestions for their improvement, . . 267
Resignations and Dismissions, ... 64, 127, 188, 383
Yards, list of officers attached thereto, ... 173
Naval Sketches, ... 376
Intelligence, ... 60, 126, 185, 256, 318, 382
Naval Reminiscences, ... 174
North Western America—Exertions to promote temperance in, . . 372
Notices—to subscribers, correspondents, and agents, ... 188
On the advantages possessed by Naval Men, in contributing to general science, ... 52
On popular prejudices against Military Establishments, ... 292
Private armed ship Marquis Lafayette—Narrative of the escape and cruizes of, during the Revolutionary war, ... 285
Rejected communications, with comments, ... 251
Recollections of a sea life, by a Midshipman of the last century, . 25
of the storming of Ciudad Rodrigo, ... 30
Report from Commander of Schr. Porpoise, ... 62
Storm at sea, by Peter Simple, ... 108
Survey of the Coast—Observations on the, under laws of 1807 & '17 162
Spirit and progress of the age, ... 1
Steam naval warfare, ... 48
To the officers of the two services, ... 303

PREFACE.

THE delay which has occurred in the appearance of the present number, beyond the period fixed in the prospectus, has been owing solely to the expectation that a similar publication would have been issued, as promised, from a press in this city. But for this circumstance, the first number of the MILITARY & NAVAL MAGAZINE of the United States, would have been presented to its patrons and the public, on the 1st of January, 1833.

That there is an ample field for a work of this description, cannot admit of a momentary doubt. When the Officers of both Services find that they have a medium of communication, expressly devoted to their interests and wants, one in which professional science, attainments and improvements, can be introduced, and the various matters connected with their professional duties discussed, while it offers an hour's agreeable entertainment,—they will not be backward in bestowing that encouragement, necessary to the existence of all periodicals. Much, however, must and will depend upon the manner in which the work is conducted,

and in this respect, every effort will be made, on the part of the editor, to render it worthy of continued support.—If the few first numbers should not meet the expectations of all, let it be borne in mind, that the editor has to acquire an experience, which will be a guide to his future course; and that he has to collect materials from various sources, to select, compare, and arrange them. If a love of country, and a desire to protect and preserve our valuable institutions—if a wish to spread abroad the name, resources, and capabilities of our fast growing republic—if a sincere admiration of the gallantry, worth and importance of our officers, and some little experience in one of the Executive Departments, can present any claims to confidence and support, then these may be proffered with good faith.

In this new and hitherto untried field, the editor hopes to be sustained by the fostering smiles of those, to whose interests and gratification he is prepared to devote his time, abilities and resources.

Confirmed by the opinions of many officers, whose judgments can be relied upon, as to the utility of this Magazine, and of the practicability of sustaining it, and encouraged by the hopes, as well as by the promises of assistance, the present number is offered to the public, but particularly to the Army and Navy.

The desired proportion of original matter has not been obtained: this difficulty, however, will be gradually lessened, and perhaps entirely obviated, in the succeeding numbers. Nor has it been thought essential, to arrange the selected articles according to the subjects treated.—While aiming to allow an equal space to both branches of

the public service, it cannot be expected, that the pages will be so exactly divided between them as to give the same number of lines to each; in one number, the Army may have more than its proportion, and in another, the Navy; but impartiality, in this respect, will be observed.

It may not be amiss to state, that the Magazine will not be influenced by, or take sides with, any of the political parties in the country. Though pursuing a strictly neutral course in this respect, its pages will not be closed against the temperate discussion of questions relating to the welfare of the Officers or the Services.

Contributions, upon any subject that may be deemed useful, important, or interesting, are respectfully solicited. There are many who have it in their power to render efficient aid, and surely they will not withhold it.

The paper upon which the first number is printed, is not of the quality intended to be used; it was the best that could be obtained on an emergency.

March 1, 1833.

B. HOMANS, PRINTER,
WASHINGTON CITY CHRONICLE OFFICE.

MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

VOL. 1.---NO. 1.---MARCH, 1833.

Spirit and progress of the age—Its influence on our future prospects.—Brief notice of the Services—of the Military Character, &c.

THE present age is one possessing, in whatever light it is regarded, an elasticity of spirit which is attractive and exciting to an extreme degree. The mass of materials which daily arrests the attention of the thinking mind; from their novel and multiplied varieties, their magnitude and importance, are of a nature to awaken intense interest; to kindle the liveliest enthusiasm; and to superinduce serious and sober reflection.—From amidst the dazzling effulgence of the lights of knowledge that are shed along our path, we contemplate with great self-complacency, these gloomy and cheerless wastes, which are seen throughout the dim twilight of years that have rolled away, characterized as they are by superstition and bigotry, by the most vague and erroneous conceptions of true philosophy, disquisitions subtle and refined, but unmeaning and useless; by blind and fruitless research; and we already appear to stand upon the ground of our own self-sufficiency; to have overlooked or thrown aside the lessons drawn from the experience of those who have gone before us, as furnishing no landmarks or aids to the triumphant march of our day. All ranks and classes of men of all professions and trades are moving forward in eager emulation to enjoy the privileges and secure some

of the fruits of this golden age. The air, the earth and ocean, with their teeming inhabitants and productions, all the inventions and improvements in the mechanic and other arts, the elements of animate and inanimate matter which have been discovered by the highest efforts of philosophy; every thing, in short, is pressed into the service and compelled to pay tribute for the procuring of new comforts and luxuries to the rich and prosperous—as though their everlasting happiness depended on their diligence;—as though the amassing of wealth were the "summum bonum" of human exertion; Americans seem steadily resolved to outdo all former essays of individual enterprise.

In this swift and impetuous career, the mind is occasionally disposed to pause for a brief season; to rest awhile on the pinions of its flight and glance at the new times and situations upon which we have arrived, to examine whether our course has been ordered and pursued undeviatingly according to the dictates of sound judgment and discretion; whether the star of our political grandeur has not been culminating too rapidly towards its meridian ascendency, and to ascertain if we have not reached some new latitudes, attained to some new relations which demand the adoption of correspondent plans; or the introduction of some alterations in our further progress.

In the prosecution of [illegible] several questions naturally suggest themselves, and we would beg leave to ask if the energies of rising minds are directed to objects that are commensurate with their capacities and high destinies? Are we not destitute of a truly national literature; and do our political newspapers, the vast majority of which are filled with mistatements, calumny and detraction by party zealots; do the copious literary streams that flow in from foreign shores, poisoned as they are at their sources, furnish us with a wholesome substitute for that which we have not? Are the thirst after political eminence, and the acquisition and hoarding up of wealth, those predominant, all-engrossing passions of our citizens, the only paramount objects worthy to occupy their time and talents? Is the trammelling and narrowing spirit of commercial intercourse favourable to the attainment of virtue; to the rearing of good husbands, sons and brothers? Is not the tendency of our age fearfully destructive of public and private virtue, and have Americans given sufficient heed to those solemn warnings with

which history is pregnant? Have they remembered that as there are climacterics in human life, so there are eventful crises in all human affairs: that human institutions are of necessity never stationary; that they obey impulses which are wayward and capricious, and that therefore they are eternally fluctuating and ever subject to the most irregular librations? Have they not reposed in a security more fancied than real; and relied too implicitly on uninterrupted peace and tranquillity from the external evidences of harmony and good order?

It behooves us to bear it in mind that change, unceasing though gradual, perhaps imperceptible change, is stamped in lasting characters upon the works of creation and upon all the fabrics of human wisdom and industry, and that weakness and imperfection are deeply engrafted upon the very warp and woof of our nature. Empires have had their rise, decline and fall, their monuments and inscriptions have mouldered away and crumbled into dust under the consuming hand of time, but the human passions have stood the same, unaltered and unalterable amid the elemental strife. Let us fortify our constitutions of government as we please by checks and balances; still no written instrument can withstand the workings of avarice, the throes of ambition and the tremendous commotion and agonizing conflict of a host of malignant and perverted passions.

We are told at every corner of the street, although we do not frequently meet that dignified personage, that "the schoolmaster is abroad".—We are heartily glad that such is the case, for according to our notion many new lessons remain to be learned, and many old ones to be unlearned; and if we are not in error, many alarming and startling truths will follow in the train of this new instruction. We seem at this time to have partially lost sight of those excellent maxims of the Lacedemonians "Know thyself"—"Do nothing to excess." For our own part, we confess our utter incredulity as to the immediate perfectibility of the human race—mank ind has wisely relinquished the search for the philosopher's stone; but we believe it to be the conviction of many, that secular knowledge is the talismanic charm, which in the lapse of a few years is to convert all opinions into golden ones, and to metamorphose all our vile propensities into principles of purity. In our opinion it is true practically, if not in theory, although it may appear paradoxical to some minds, that honest ignorance is decidedly

preferable to many branches of knowledge, and we have no hesitation in rejecting as illusory the generally received postulate, that as a consequence of the dissemination of secular knowledge, we are to expect the fruits of peace as its concomitants. We shall not look for those days of profound and uninterrupted peace that are promised, until our obstinate natures are radically changed, until the frame of our mind is differently constituted from what it is at present, or its elements are reorganized. If the saying of a distinguished Roman is true, that "the highest learning is to be wise and the greatest wisdom is to be good," it follows that he who acquires learning at the expense of his morals, is the worse for his education. We are believers in the almost omnipotent power of education, but by it we mean the simultaneous and joint cultivation of our intellectual and moral natures. Whenever religion and knowledge, or moral and intellectual improvement, operate by their concurrent agency in the formation of character, the subject of them imbibes virtuous sentiments while his understanding is enlightened and invigorated. Whenever these agents are allied, we hail their beneficent effects, and cheerfully acknowledge their benign influences: we recognize motives to the practice of virtue infinitely higher than mere selfish ones, or those of obedience to human institutions alone; incentives to purity of conduct between man and his neighbor not to be subdued or checked by sudden alternations of feeling; that are secure from fluctuation under all accidents of time, and place. But unluckily, knowledge and virtue do not always march together, nor does the extension of the former necessarily imply the advancement of the latter; a man of uncommon attainments is quite as likely to lead an irregular life as one of more humble pretensions. It will be readily admitted, we presume, that intellectual cultivation has nothing in itself intrinsically, that is capable of touching the heart, or of controlling the passions. To be satisfied that our remarks are predicated on just grounds, we have to look inward upon ourselves and see if in consequence of the possession of secular knowledge we are more willing than formerly to divest ourselves of a goodly portion of our besetting sins, as the inordinate love of power and wealth, whether we would sooner surrender a favorite scheme of personal aggrandizement, than come into collision with an enemy, or run the risk of estranging a friend—it is not then

in the scope of such an education to eradicate from the heart any of the vicious propensities with which it is endowed; nor does the abundance of its fruits exhibit any chastening effects in the formation of character. The young men of our country have received, what is styled their education, and have learned their profession before they even think of cultivating their moral nature; and if they then attempt the herculean task, they must bid adieu to many pleasant prejudices and fixed habits of feeling, before the soil is in a state of preparation to receive new seeds.

The diffusion of secular knowledge tends to better the social condition in a degree, by the favourable bias which the judgment gives to the passions; but much more by the happy direction given to the ever active and all powerful principle of self interest; which by being diverted into useful channels goes hand in hand with the preservation of civil order, and becomes in a variety of ways a strong motive for obedience to the laws, and adherence to the existing institutions of a wise and paternal government. Under such a government the bad man, if he resolves in his mind the effects of the nefarious schemes he is meditating, will at once perceive that any attempt to disturb the established order of things would in all likelihood be frustrated, and redound to his own discomfiture and disgrace.—But these observations are subject to great and decided limitations and allowances, and are by far from being universal in their application: as regulating the conduct of people of a same state or nation, it is presupposed that the all-pervading principle of self-interest operates under the wise policy of a just and liberal government, administered by authorities that are competent to vindicate the supremacy of the laws of the land; and in general, if the sacred obligations of justice are scrupulously observed between individuals of the same community, it may be attributed less to the natural uprightness or amelioration of heart, than to a conformity which is indispensably necessary to established usage; to an unwilling obedience, perhaps, to laws that are rendered speedily and fully effective by a prompt executive; but even then a cheerful submission is very infrequent, and every day's occurrence has its history of dupes and designing men. When these healthy restraints are removed, as when a people is on the point of forming a new government, or, when a government becomes contemptible in

the eyes of its subjects, and can no longer give force to the execution of its laws, as is the case in the present and past history of some of the South American Republics; where is the barrier to the dictatorial, domineering spirit of ambitious men? In all transactions, on the other hand, between the subjects or governments of different nations, this continuity of interest ceases, these modifying circumstances no longer have existence, the agency of self-interest is perceived to be the reverse of what it was in the former case, its weight is at once thrown into the opposite scale, impartial justice kicks the beam, and mutual good faith as a rule of conduct is almost completely excluded, or entirely vanished from international diplomacy. To recur to examples illustrative of the truth of what we have undertaken to demonstrate, is unnecessary; every page of history is crowded with them.

Are our remarks understood and appreciated, and does the reader grant that we have not dealt in sophistry? If so, the conclusions we arrive at are easily comprehended: they are, that the spirit of the age is in many respects much the same as it was in the proudest days of Imperial Rome: that it fosters the elements of discontent and trouble, and is as truly the harbinger of war as of peace. We are by no means the friend of ignorance; we are the advocates of useful knowledge; but it should be borne in mind that either of these qualities, according to their interpretation, or the direction given to them, may be a blessing or a curse to mankind: it is no less important to attend to the proper force and meaning of the words peace and war: peace is nothing less than peace, no matter how inglorious: no matter if the bone and muscle of a degraded, worthless peasantry are solely employed, amidst their groans and imprecations in furnishing the implements of their own torture to their lordly masters. The realities of war are immediately sensible to all; they are startling and magnified horrors to the timid; no matter how many illusions of opinion they disperse, or how many benefits they bring in their train.

We are now brought to another portion of our subject, and we would take the liberty to inquire if the public mind does not entertain many erroneous views in relation to the public welfare? Is there not an undue jealousy towards those institutions, which the great Washington deemed worthy to be cherished and protected, connected as they are with the prosperity and

quiet of our country; and towards which, she must always turn in times of danger? It is neither statesmanlike nor patriotic, to treat lightly that which is of vital consequence;—of our Army and Navy, as small as they are, our country has required much and expects more; and we have heard enough vapid declamation against the extension of a military spirit,—a virtue which, it is undeniable, is at present at a low ebb in our country, and degraded much below its proper level; but though its state of depreciation is but poorly warranted by its great importance, we thank heaven it is a species of stock which, under no state of the market, can fall below par. We, of the Army, are frequently complimented on its excellent *personnel*; on the military character, as developed under the auspices of the Military Academy; and we are aware that the services have many true and sincere friends, to whom we yield the tribute of our unfeigned gratitude; but is it not matter of deep regret, that the courtesy so pleasing to members of the military profession, is so frequently withheld from us in the Halls of our National Legislature? We say it not in reproach, but in sorrow, that the delicacy of the soldier's feelings is often too rudely assailed there, and we look with confidence for the manifestation of a more just feeling. We neither court praise nor censure, nor do we look for epic poems in these days to commemorate deeds however noble; but we would claim that respect for refined and lofty sentiments, which all nations have uniformly conceded. It is true that a soldier's sense of honour is at all times the sweetener of his gloomy hours; his *vade-mecum* and constant solace under unmerited reproach; the cynosure that beckons him onward, while he despises all obstacles, however difficult and dangerous, between him and the performance of his duty; but the soliloquy of Sir John Falstaff is worth something after all: we are of his opinion that honour cannot set a leg, or an arm, or take away the grief of a wound; but we should be sorry to adopt his conclusions, nor can we say with this doughty hero, "therefore I'll none of it; honour is a mere scutcheon." We still adhere to this much abused word, this precious inheritance of the soldier; and we uphold honour and patriotism as the predominant characteristics that should peculiarly distinguish him: but if he is snatched away by the sword or pestilence, the remembrance of these virtues cannot sustain his widow or orphans, or administer to their bereavement.

We have said that we enumerate among the most important requisites, as of primary importance in the character of an officer, the possession of honour and patriotism. In no class of men do we conceive these virtues to exist so pure and uncontaminated, so unadulterated by foreign admixture of any kind, as among the gentlemen of the services; and the reasons are obvious: they are inseparable from their education, their constant companion; the demoralizing transactions of business, of stock-jobbing speculations, do not draw away their attention from the contemplation of these moral excellences; they are cherished in their secret aspirations after distinction; they are 'their morning song and evening lullaby.' We will explain the precise meaning we attach to these words. By patriotism, we mean that ardent, sincere and devoted attachment to our country, which is deeply founded on the best feelings of the heart; according to our definition, it includes an unshakeable loyalty, or firm adherence to the existing form of government, and of course an invincible devotion to the constitution. When we speak of honour, we mean something which we imagine is but poorly comprehended by many politicians of our day: something which far from being to them a rule of conduct, a lamp to their path, is, we suspect, scarcely conceived by them as an abstraction of the mind. We mean not that honour so called, which ignites and blazes up by contact of every contemptible spark that floats in the atmosphere; not that which is harped upon in political tracts and newspapers; nor that which is bandied about by wrangling hotspurs in country ale-houses; by desperadoes, and fugitives from justice, and by professional duellists. We would wrest the sacred name of honour from such polluted lips; we would rescue it from unmerited reproach; and snatch it from this compulsory association and intimacy with all that is worthless and vile. It is not, then, the miscalled honour that bad men use to disturb the concord and tranquillity of society, that we mean: no! It is as high above this as heaven is above earth. We define honour to be, that active and heaven-born principle, that never dying incentive to goodness, that purifying and ennobling sentiment, which pervades every thought, word and action, while it regulates and controls the passions; which flows in a kindred channel with the domestic virtues, which sustains and fosters them, and runs parallel to the laws of God and our country. This is what we mean when we

talk of honour, and for a specimen of it we proudly refer you to the military man, who is so by education: you may discover its indices in that open manliness and candour, that frank and confiding independence of manner and feeling, that superiority to all trivial meanness, which almost always characterize him.

We hope we have explained ourselves, and we are quite unwilling that those who are incapable of these choice feelings of the officer should construe them and attribute to them a force commensurate with their own narrow and erroneous conceptions. We are afraid that sentence is frequently passed upon the Services by a tribunal that is inadequate to give judgment; we are conscious of suffering manifest injustice by the comments of those self-constituted judges, who are incapacitated by their habits of thought and action from judging aright in matters of such delicate moment to the reputation of officers. We appeal from all hasty decisions, and deprecate the overweening confidence assumed by many of our fellow citizens in adopting and sustaining opinions which have not correct views for their basis. We stand in need of some commission endowed with more of our own feelings, which shall be worthy to decide in affairs of vital import to us, as members of a profession. We rejoice that the Services have now an appropriate channel by which to commend themselves to public notice. We feel pride and gratification at this time, to contribute our humble mite to the propagation of opinions that are consonant to reason and the laws of the human constitution; that may be instrumental in curbing the lust and pride of wealth, and in diverting attention from what we consider the appalling and ruthless assaults upon the integrity of our institutions.

Americans are unhappily beset by a false patriotism, that holds in distrust, and would obliterate every semblance of military spirit or knowledge, that exists among us; and there is nothing of which we are more lamentably deficient, or of which we stand in greater need. Why have not military men been employed in negociating treaties, involving the question of our boundaries? and what is the consequence of not employing them? We have been almost invariably circumvented in all such negociations, if we except our treaties with the Indians. Look, for example, at our unnatural boundary separating the United States from the Texas. The northern projection was given to Maine to cut off communication between Quebec and

Halifax—it has been surrendered: the Prince of Orange, son of the King of Holland, the presiding officer of his councils, a General in the British Army, under the instructions of the Duke of Wellington, struck it off by a single dash of his pen. This decision is worth to Great Britain a standing army of 10,000 men on that frontier. To our civilians, European monarchies oppose their military men of greatest abilities, who see things with a military eye. Look at the supremely wise policy of Great Britain: she holds on to the most barren rock, if it be a position of strength and command; while Americans, as though the millenium had actually arrived, and its halcyon days of repose and peace were to rest henceforth upon our land, inquire how much corn and potatoes it will produce. Cast your eyes over the habitable globe, and see her strong holds commanding it all, as a bastion does its adjacent curtain. See her expensive military positions on this side of the Atlantic, and our own coast is enfiladed from Bermuda and Halifax, that main pillar of British naval power.

Some eminent writers have taken the ground of late, that a military education involves few and simple principles; that the main operations of war are more dependent upon brute force and physical courage, than upon intellectual and moral energy; and that great conquerors are seldom or never great legislators or statesmen. We are not surprised that such notions may have a temporary sway in the minds of some; we cannot afford time, even were it necessary, to combat positions, which by their very nature are untenable, and carry a triumphant refutation along with them. If such is the case, then history has taught no lessons, and such names as Alexander, Charlemagne, Frederic II., &c, lose their charm. We have not time for the task we had proposed to ourselves, to examine minutely the essentials of the military character; but we would observe, that if to be great, it must be composed of great elements, then does the military character require the union of more exalted qualities than any other. The military man, in order to earn a reputation as such, must have rapidity of conception, and fertility of invention; with the capacity to inspire others with confidence and resolution; he is not, therefore, the buffet of impulses that are wayward and casual—he must be able to take lucid and perspicuous views of all grand objects, as also of their correlative and suborbinate circumstances: his very passions therefore

must be prompted by, and concur with, the dictates of his judgment; he must be ever prepared for the prompt execution of the solemn and deliberate determinations of his mind; he must rely with confidence on his own opinions, and practise amidst unremitted and severe trials, the most manly virtues; it is his peculiar prerogative to rise superior to disheartening difficulties, to cherish that magnanimity, fortitude and self-command, that superiority of mind to body that exults in adversity, and meditates great enterprises in defeat; he must possess courage not only to brave danger, suffering and death, but to despise scorn, contempt and ridicule; he must possess that courage which acts with calm composure, and not that which is the result of physical temperament, or which is temporarily elicited by the ebullition of some unruly passion. A thoughtless headlong courage is no atonement for the absence of the milder virtues; to be attractive, it must be united to nobleness and dignity; and where is this alliance so intimate as in the soldier?

After all, it is only the soldier who has received, in the school or in the field, that elevating and ennobling tone of feeling, which invariably accompanies his education, whose mind has been trained and exercised by his severe and important duties; who is capable of appreciating the high calling in which he has embarked. While he is engaged in prosecuting his researches upon the very frontiers of science, with the example of the heroes of ancient and modern times before him, collating and contrasting their systems, as modified by the prodigious changes which the kind and efficiency of arms and munitions, the character of the combatants, and the numerous accidents of time and situation have introduced into the art of war: while he regards man as a machine to be put in motion by his will, and animated by his mind, and considers that both the physical and moral force of thousands are subject to his controul: while he perceives and feels the powers he can awaken by a few evolutions in a mass of matter almost inert, he is ready to believe that the science of war is one of the most complicated and important that exists.

Before closing this paper, we have one word to say on the want of activity and enterprise incident to a state of peace, which is extremely prevalent among our brother officers of the Army; we owe no apology for saying that these times require something of their talents; that the interest and well-being of the service demand

imperiously the ardent and steady cooperation of those abilities that are slumbering in listless inactivity. We deplore this stoical indifference, this almost cynical temper; disguise it as we may, we are fettered by an ignoble bondage, enveloped in a deleterious atmosphere, which begets sluggish inertness and apathy; where we are liable to contract notions that emasculate the mind, and subject it to perpetual thraldom, that engender and harbour erroneous perceptions of right and wrong, by forsaking the dictates of wisdom and the results of experience. Shroud ourselves as we may in our fancied independence, we are nevertheless endowed with time and talents, for which we are accountable to posterity, and to the contemporary spirit of industry. J. L. L.

FROM THE BALTIMORE REPUBLICAN, OF DEC. 21, 1832.

COQUILLE

Is the name of a beautiful little Island in the midst of Lake Ponchartrain, Louisiana. Its history is exceedingly interesting. Long before the white men dreamed of North America, this little spot was very densely tenanted. Here the aborigines would assemble from surrounding districts, on setting out for war, and on business of legislation. Flint arrow heads, amulets, beads, &c. in various stages of workmanship, are strewed all over the Island, and a mound has been recently removed from its centre, which contained the semi-recumbent skeletons of the distinguished of many tribes. Few of the descendants of these men are abroad at the present day. Their names (Natchez, Appalachies, Tensas, Alabamas, Pascagoulas, Chetimachies, Biloxes, Tunicas and Carancoahs) are scarcely known to us.

In 1698, the Island was taken possession of in the name of the French King, by M. Le Compte de Lugne; and in the subsequent broils with the Spanish settlers, served as the arena of many sanguinary collisions. By some *ruse*, of which history details no particulars, the Island became the property of the Spanish King, who erected on it extensive fortifications. It again passed into the hands of the Great Nation—from whom it was obtained by the Americans in the Jeffersonian transfer, and is now a beautiful military post, named in honor of the hero of York, (the lamented Pike.) It is remarkable for unvarying salubrity, the number and excellence of its fish and fowl, and in particular for a beautiful species of *shell*, with which its surface abounds, and from which it derives its unobtrusive appellation.

Exposed to the peltings of every storm, *Coquille* is evidently obeying the great law. Every gale leaves indications of the little Island's vulnerability. Within a very few years, large portions of His Catholic Majesty's ramparts have been most unloyally abstracted by the waters, and at low tide exhibit their "pearl decked" summits in very rebellious relief. How far the exertions of its present gallant occupants, may retard the advance of their aqueous assailant, it is impossible to determine; but the probability is strong, that before another half century, 'the Island of Shells' will form a portion of the bed of the Gulf of Mexico.

The following lines on this subject, are from the pen of Dr. L. O'Brien, United States Army, and have been arranged to the well known air '*the Light House.*' They were originally published in the Louisiana Advertiser, over the signature of 'Kasse.'

OUR ISLAND OF SHELLS.

We may gaze on the face of creation intently,
And smile on her features of mountains and dells,
But there is not in her nature, a trait which so gently
Exhibits her worth, like 'our island of shells.'

Encircled by waters, whose ripples the Peris
Mid the sun-beams of fancy weave in limpid cells,
Above her, the cloud-courting swarms, which in series,
Shake their spray 'lumined wings o'er 'our island of shells.'

Coquille! the fringed surf which for ages has laved thee,
And caressed thee through time, in its pearl-bedecked swells,
Ambitious to woo thee, now rushes to save thee,
And press to its bosom 'our island of shells.'

'Tis thus with the world! the brightest and rarest,
Must yield to the fate which in youth it repels,
The arm of the brave, and the tear of the fairest,
Fall pitiless, like 'our own island of shells.'

Coquille! if the prayers of the free and the daring,
Could avert the o'erwhelming that time fast propels,
Thy rampart-bound margins, the flag they are bearing,
Would long consecrate 'our own island of shells,'

But alas! all thy beauty, thy strength, and thy glory,
Are marked for destruction in destiny's cells,
The tears of our sons will bedew the sad story,
Of the fate that befel 'our own island of shells'

From the New York Journal of Commerce, Dec. 19, 1832.

THE NAVY.

From the documents accompanying the Report of the Secretary of the Navy, we have compiled the annexed statement, showing the present condition of this right arm of our national defence.

SHIPS OF THE LINE.

Name and Rate.		*Where and when built.*		*Where Employed.*
Columbus	74	Washington	1819	In ordinary at Boston.
Independence	74	Boston	1814	Ditto ditto
Ohio	74	New York	1820	Ditto New York.
Washington	74	Portsmouth	1814	Ditto ditto
Franklin	74	Philadelphia	1815	Ditto ditto
North Carolina	74	Philadelphia	1820	Ditto Norfolk.
Delaware	74	Norfolk	1820	Fitting for sea ditto
Alabama	74	Portsmouth		On the Stocks.
Vermont	74	Boston		Ditto ditto
Virginia	74	Boston		Ditto ditto
Pennsylvania	74	Philadelphia		Ditto ditto
New York	74	Norfolk		Ditto ditto

FRIGATES OF THE FIRST CLASS.

United States	44	Philadelphia	1797	In the Mediterranean.
Brandywine	44	Washington	1825	Ditto ditto
Potomac	44	Washington	1821	In the Pacific.
Constitution	44	Boston	1797	In ordinary at Boston.
Hudson	44	Purchased	1826	Ditto New York.
Java	44	Baltimore	1814	Ditto Norfolk.
Guerriere	44	Philadelphia	1814	Ditto ditto
Santee	44	Portsmouth		On the Stocks.
Cumberland	44	Boston		Ditto ditto
Sabine	44	New York		Ditto ditto
Savannah	44	New York		Ditto ditto
Raritan	44	Philadelphia		Ditto ditto
Columbia	44	Washington		Ditto ditto
St. Lawrence	44	Norfolk		Ditto ditto

FRIGATES OF THE SECOND CLASS.

Constellation	36	Baltimore	1797	In the Mediterranean.
Congress	36	Portsmouth	1799	In ordinary at Norfolk.
Macedonian	36	Captured	1812	Rebuilding ditto

SLOOPS OF WAR.

John Adams	24	Charleston	1799	In the Mediterranean.
Cyane	24	Captured	1815	In ordinary at Philadel.
Concord	18	Portsmouth	1828	In the Mediterranean.
Boston	18	Boston	1825	Ditto ditto
Vandalia	18	Philadelphia	1828	In the West Indies.
St. Louis	18	Washington	1828	Ditto ditto
Falmouth	18	Boston	1827	In the Pacific.
Warren	18	Boston	1826	Coast of Brazil.
Peacock	18	New York	1813	Ditto ditto
Lexington	18	New York	1825	Ditto ditto
Erie	18	Baltimore	1813	In ordinary at Boston.
Natchez	18	Norfolk	1827	Ditto Norfolk.
Fairfield	18	New York	1828	Ditto ditto
Ontario	18	Baltimore	1813	Ditto ditto
Vincennes	18	New York	1826	Ditto ditto

SCHOONERS OF WAR.

Porpoise	12	Portsmouth	1820 In the West Indies.
Grampus	12	Washington	1821 Ditto ditto
Shark	12	Washington	1821 Ditto ditto
Enterprise	12	New York	1831 Coast of Brazil.
Boxer	12	Boston	1831 Ditto ditto
Dolphin	12	Philadelphia	1821 In the Pacific.
Experiment	12	Washington	1832 Norfolk.

RECAPITULATION.

Ships of the Line,	12 x 74		888
Frigates of the First Class,	14 x 44		616
Frigates of the Second Class,	3 x 36		108
Sloops of 24 guns,	2 x 24		48
Sloops of 18 guns,	13 x 18		134
Schooners,	7 x 12		84
Total number of Ships,	51	Guns	1978

The ships on the stocks, with the exception of the Pennsylvania and Savannah, could all be got ready for launching in ninety days, and some of them in sixty. The Savannah would require 120 days, and the Pennsylvania six months. The ships in ordinary are in various states of preservation, but most of them would require extensive repairs, before being ready for sea.

In addition to the force embraced in the preceding list, the frames and promiscuous live oak timber for four ships of the line, seven frigates, four sloops of war, and three steam vessels, are on hand; viz. at Boston, two ships of the line, two frigates, and one sloop of war; at New York, one frigate; at Philadelphia, two frigates and one sloop of war; at Norfolk, two ships of the line, one frigate, and one sloop of war; at Washington, one frigate and one sloop of war. Where the frames of the steam-vessels are in deposite, we do not find it stated. Contracts have further been made for the frames, &c. of three frigates and three sloops of war. If we include in the estimate of our naval force, the ships for which the timber is already furnished or contracted for, the account will stand thus:

	74's.	*Frigates.*	*Sloops*	*Schrs.*	*Steam vessels.*
In commission,	0	4	9	7	0
In ordinary	7	6	6	0	0
On the stocks	5	7	0	0	0
Frames on hand	4	7	4	0	3
Frames contracted for		3	3	0	0
Total,	16	27	22	7	3

Besides the frames above mentioned, and the timber properly belonging to them, there are on hand at the different Navy-yards, under the appropriations for repairs, and for other purposes, 75,120 cubic feet of live oak, 339,716 cubic feet of white oak, 1,427,907 feet of plank, 7,770 knees, 421,045 cubic feet of yellow pine, 788,468 superficial feet of yellow pine, 11,693 superficial feet of white pine, and 48,040 cubic feet of various knees.

There are also on hand, 1,548 tons of iron, 652 tons of lead, 114 tons of copper, 335 anchors not in use, and 27 chain cables not in use.

There are also on hand, exclusive of what is on board of vessels in commission, 2,232 cannon and carronades, 228,908 round and double-headed cannon balls, 23,324 grape and cannister, 540 tons loose grape and cannister, 35,600 lbs. powder, 198,382 lbs. sulphur, 396,994 lbs. nitre, 3,504 muskets, 5,703 pistols, and 5,248 cutlasses.

The *value* of the stores on hand, at the different Navy-yards on the 1st of October last, was as follows:

Portsmouth, (N. H.)	$ 348,979 49
Boston,	1,122,617 79
New York,	1,494,143 08
Philadelphia,	471,646 81
Washington,	907,273 37
Norfolk,	1,057,987 83
Pensacola,	167,269 55
Total,	$ 5,569,917 92

The estimated expenses of the Navy during the year 1833 are $3,176,-766 87. In this calculation, provision is made for holding in commission 1 ship of the line, 3 frigates of the 1st class, and 1 frigate of the 2nd class, 11 sloops, and 7 schooners, with an aggregate of 5,025 officers and men, viz. for the ship of the line 835 men, first class frigates 454 men each, second class 368, sloops 188, schooners 56.

The deaths among the officers of the Navy, as far as ascertained, since the 1st of December, 1831, are as follows, viz. 3 Captains, (George W. Rodgers, C. C. B. Thompson, and James T. Leonard), 6 Lieutenants, 1 Surgeon, 1 Assistant Surgeon, 2 Pursers, 1 Passed Midshipman, 9 Midshipmen, 3 Boatswains, 2 Gunners, and 1 Marine Officer. The dismissions—2 Lieutenants, 1 Assistant Surgeon, 1 Passed Midshipman, 6 Midshipmen, 1 Boatswain, and 2 Marine Officers. The resignations—2 Pursers, 3 Passed Midshipmen, 18 Midshipmen, 2 Sail-makers, and 1 Marine Officer.

OFFICERS OF THE NAVY, JANUARY, 1833.

	No. in service.	*Pay per annum.*	*Rations per day.*
Post-Captains	37	$ 1,200	8
Masters Commandant	41	720	5
Lieutenants	259	600	4
Surgeons	44	various	
Assistant Surgeons	45		
Pursers	43	480	2
Chaplains	9	480	2
Passed Midshipmen	94	300	2
Midshipmen	356	228	1
Sailing Masters	31	480	2
Boatswains	16	240	2
Gunners	19	240	2
Carpenters	15	240	2
Sail Makers	13	240	2

MARINE CORPS.

	No. in service.	*Pay per annum.*	*Rations per day.*
Lieut. Col. Commandant	1	900	6
Captains	9	480	3
First Lieutenants	24	360	3
Second Lieutenants	16	300	2

The following interesting paper was read before the Newport Associate Society at a late regular meeting. In availing ourselves of the kind permission of the author to lay it before our readers, we will only remark, that from his excellent opportunities for correct information, the historical accuracy of the account may be safely relied upon.

THE BATTLE OF SACKTT'S HARBOR.

The battle of Sackett's Harbor, fought on the 29th of May, 1813, does not appear to have attracted the notice of the public, to a degree proportioned to the abilities displayed on that occasion by the American leaders, or the valor exhibited by the regular troops under their command. It was in this battle that General Brown first evinced those eminent qualities, which enabled him on other and more celebrated fields, with so much glory to himself, to vindicate his country's honor;—and though the defence of Sackett's Harbor had no immediate influence on the succeeding events of the war, the record of that achievement deserves a high place in the annals of our country, as a brilliant illustration of the bravery and military talent capable of being exerted by American citizens.

During the spring of 1813, the important post of Sackett's Harbor was left in a very weak and ill-defended state, in consequence of the removal of almost all its garrison to co-operate in the attack on Fort George. The enemy at Kingston was not ignorant of its exposed situation, and the idea very naturally occurred to him to seize the opportunity thus presented of striking a blow, which might be productive of important results in his favor. The British were besides more strongly tempted to attack Sackett's Harbor on account of its being our principal military depot on the lakes, and the place where all the property captured at York was stored. We had also a vessel of war then on the stocks, called the PIKE, to have destroyed which, with the naval stores and armament that had been collected with great labor and expense, would have given to the British the supremacy on Lake Ontario, and a decided advantage throughout the subsequent campaign. The whole force left to guard so important a position, consisted of a part of a regiment of Dragoons in number about 200 men, under the command of Col. Backus, a detachment of 40 or 50 Artillerists under Lt. Ketcham, and another of 70 or 80 Infantry, consisting principally of invalids, recruits, and fractions of companies, which had been left when the main body of troops were transported to Fort George. These, in

the event of an attack, might be assisted by such of the militia of the neighboring country as could be called in at a moment's warning.

At the period of which we are speaking, Gen. Brown had been for some time residing on his farm at Brownville, seven miles distant from Sackett's Harbor, having finished the six months term of service for which the militia of his district had been called into the field at the commencement of the war.—When Commodore Chauncey came down the lake a short time previous, with orders to transport to Fort Niagara all the troops in Sackett's Harbor except the few just enumerated, he brought a letter from Gen. Dearborn to Gen. Brown, requesting him to assume the command at the latter place, and make what provision he could for its defence. Gen. Brown delayed his compliance with this request, from a sense of delicacy towards Col. Backus, for whom he entertained a high regard, and whom he did not wish prematurely to supercede; he accordingly waited until some positive intelligence should be received of the enemy's intentions. Every precaution was however adopted in the mean while, which the circumstances of the case seemed to require, the grounds about the Harbor were accurately examined, the most probable point of attack designated, and the plan of defence digested; measures were also taken for calling out the neighboring militia at the shortest warning, and the troops were kept diligently employed in felling trees, and otherwise obstructing all the avenues of approach of which an enemy could possibly avail himself. In making all these arrangements, Col. Backus acted in conjunction with Gen. Brown, who frequently visited the Harbor to consult as to the measures most proper to be adopted in the emergency. It was understood between them, that the moment the enemy indicated his intention to attack, the General should assume the command in person.

The schooner "Lady of the Lake," which had been for some time cruising in the vicinity of Kingston, to observe the enemy's motions, came into Sackett's Harbor on the evening of the 27th of May, and reported that he had put to sea in great force, having strengthened his fleet by the addition of the WOLF, a new vessel of 24 guns, at that time one of the largest on the Lake. This intelligence was promptly communicated by Col. Backus to Gen. Brown, who after having dispatched his expresses in every direction for assembling the militia, proceeded immediately to Sackett's Harbor, where he arrived before day on the 28th. He directed alarm guns to be fired, and dispatched dragoons in every direction, to hasten the approach of succors. The militia from the country soon began to make their appearance, and during the whole day they continued to assemble in considerable numbers. As fast as

they arrived, they were armed and sent to Horse Island, the point where the enemy was expected to land. The enemy's fleet appeared in sight early in the day, but he employed himself for some time in endeavoring to cut off an American force that was approaching from the westward. This was part of a regiment of infantry, under Col. Aspinwall, who was on his way from Oswego to Sackett's Harbor by water, and who in rounding Six-Town Point very unexpectedly found himself in the vicinity of the English fleet. The enemy immediately pursued him, and succeeded in capturing part of his force, the remainder escaped to the shore where they landed, and prosecuted their march towards their place of destination, which they reached at about nine in the evening.

In the course of the 28th, about 600 militia men had assembled, fresh from their homes, entirely without discipline, and almost without organization. These, with about 300 effective Regulars, besides the remnant of Col. Aspinwall's command, (about 100 more,) who were greatly fatigued with their day's march, constituted the whole disposable force with which the defence was to be conducted. By night all the arrangements for the reception of the enemy were completed, and Gen. Brown took his post at Horse Island. The American Commander perfectly understood the ground upon which he was to act, and he did not fail to perceive, and make his dispositions to profit by the advantages that offered themselves to the defending party.

Sackett's Harbor lies on the South side of Black River Bay, which is at that point about a mile and a half wide, the general direction of the coast in the immediate vicinity of the town, being a little North of East, and South of West. The entrance to the Harbor was defended on the East side by Fort Volunteer, and on the West by Fort Tompkins. These rendered it difficult for an enemy to land directly at the town, and made it necessary that the troops destined for the attack, should be put ashore to the Eastward or Westward of the village, out of the reach of their guns. Many reasons existed why the East side of the town should not be chosen by the enemy for his landing. His vessels or boats to have reached that quarter, would have been obliged to pass before the Forts at the mouth of the Harbor, and consequently exposed to their fire. In case of a reverse, likewise, he might have been harrassed or cut off in his retreat; and besides, by landing on the East side of the town, the assailants would have found themselves too far removed from the store-houses and the Navy-Yard,—the main objects of their expedition. Gen. Brown accordingly contented himself with posting in Fort Volunteer, the Infantry who had been left under Col. Backus' command, to guard against surprise from the East, reserving his princi-

pal strength to oppose the enemy on the opposite side of the Harbor. About one and a half miles Westward of the town, is Horse Island, lying but a short distance from the main shore, and separated from it only by a narrow channel, which is at all times very shallow, and was at this period quite dry. Opposite the end of the Island towards Sackett's Harbor, there was a cleared field of about four acres, the front of which afforded a fine landing place for boats. This *clearing* was surrounded on all sides except towards the Bay, by thick woods, which covered the whole ground between it and Sackett's Harbor. The passage through these woods had been as much obstructed as possible, by felling trees in every direction, some days before the battle. An enemy might either land on the outside of Horse Island and march across the isthmus which connected it with the main, or he might round the head of the Island in his boats, and land in front of the clearing, which afforded him sufficient ground for deploying, before he should proceed towards the town. Gen. Brown was aware that by means of spies, the enemy had well acquainted himself with the ground about Sackett's Harbor, and it could not be supposed that he would overlook the advantages which this spot offered for a descent. Here, therefore, the General made his arrangements for the principal defence, and with the facilities which the site afforded, he was not without hopes, even with the insufficient force he commanded, of rendering the enemy's attempt completely abortive. The ground along the front of the four acre clearing was very low, but just at the edge of the water, a bank of gravel, like a breast work, had been thrown up by the action of the waves, to a height sufficient to protect men lying behind it from the fire of an enemy's fleet. In clearing the field, there had been left along this bank a line of small trees and bushes, extending for a small distance to the rear also, as the soil was not suitable for cultivation. Here the General posted about 400 militia men, and a six pounder, under Col. Mills, with orders to lie close when the enemy should appear, and reserve their fire until he had approached within pistol shot. The remainder of the militia, under Col. Tuttle, were posted just within the woods on the Western side of the clearing. Col. Backus, with his 200 dragoons, dismounted, were stationed between the clearing and Sackett's Harbor, on the skirts of the woods towards the village, with orders to advance through the woods towards Horse Island, the moment it was known that the enemy had landed. Col. Aspinwall and his troops, took post on Backus' left, with instructions to co-operate with him. The Artillerists, under Lt. Ketcham, were stationed in Fort Tompkins, with no other armament than a 32 pounder, mounted on a pivot, with which, however, they could reach Horse Island, and might seriously annoy the

enemy on his approach. Orders were given to the troops posted behind the bank on the shores of the Bay, that in the event of their being driven from their station, they should fall back to the skirts of the woods immediately in their rear,—there re-form, and throw themselves on the enemy's right flank, as he advanced towards the town. Col. Tuttle and his men were directed, in the same event, to issue from the woods where they were posted, fall upon the enemy's rear—and destroy his boats; and as the regular troops would at the same time oppose him in front, his destruction, if all did their duty, was looked upon as inevitable.

The night was taken up in completing these arrangements and in explaining them to the officers and men;—as far as professions could be relied upon, all understood what was expected of them, and were anxious to meet the enemy.

At early dawn on the 29th, the American General being on horseback at the Western end of Horse Island, anxiously looking round the Bay for some signs of the enemy, to his great joy perceived them approaching in their boats near Snake Island, which lies at some distance to the West of the place where he stood. He immediately sent information of the fact to Col. Backus and to the militia, and having repeated the caution not to fire too soon, waited in silence for the enemy's approach. He came on in excellent order in thirty-three boats, and as he rounded Horse Island, the 32 pounder from Fort Tompkins, opened upon him with considerable effect. As he neared the shore, the militia from behind the embankment gave him a well directed volley, which being poured upon the masses of troops clustered together in the boats, was not without its effect. The fire however was briskly returned from the enemy's muskets, and one or two small cannon loaded with grape shot, and he continued rapidly to approach the beach. Col. Mills, who was standing up behind his men, was shot dead at the first discharge, but of the rank and file scarcely a man was touched; the sound of the enemy's bullets however, whistling through the bushes over their heads, seemed to strike the whole line of militia with an inexpressible panic, and before they had time to give a second fire, they rose from their cover and fled with the utmost precipitation. This sudden and disgraceful retreat, was a most unexpected event to Gen. Brown, who had anticipated that the militia would at least have remained firm until the enemy had landed, and thus have had time for two or three discharges. The movement however was so sudden, that before he could well ascertain the extent of the panic, he found himself standing completely alone, not a man being left within several rods of him. Indignant at this shameful conduct, he followed the fugitives, and endeavored by every personal

effort to rally them. All his endeavors, however, were unavailing! Forgetful of every promise, and heedless of the order they had received to rally in the woods in case they were driven from the shore, they continued to retreat until quite out of reach of the enemy's shot. A few were taken prisoners in the woods by a small party of Indians, who had landed the night before; some abandoned the neighborhood and were not heard of again during the day, while the greater number were not arrested in their flight, until they had proceeded two or three miles on the road leading to Adams. The men who were posted under Col. Tuttle, on the Western side of the clearing, partook of the panic, and broke in the same disgraceful manner, though they had not been at all exposed to the enemy's fire. This last event completed Gen. Brown's vexation; his whole plan had failed through the cowardice of those to whom the execution of it was entrusted, and from having been originally almost sanguine as to the result, he for a moment, feared that all was lost. Capt. McNitt, however, assisted by Lt. Mayo, had succeeded in rallying about 100 men, who at the time the General first saw them had gained a position, sheltered by some fallen trees, from which they were seriously annoying the right flank of the enemy, who by this time had landed and was directing his march towards the town. Col. Backus also had advanced agreeably to the concerted plan, and having met the enemy almost at the landing place, was gallantly disputing with him every inch of ground. The sight of these favorable indications revived Gen. Brown's hopes; he remained a short time with Capt. McNitt's company, animating the men with his countenance and example, and then proceeded towards Backus' command, to observe the situation of things in that quarter. He found the Colonel's troops behaving most nobly in the face of a veteran enemy, of three times their number, but in spite of all their efforts, they were obliged gradually to give ground through the woods towards Sackett's Harbor. At this time, the American General was greatly surprised at the appearance of smoke issuing in volumes from the store houses, which contained all the spoils of York. Not knowing how to account for a conflagration in that quarter at this particular period, and fearing it might be the work of the enemy, he repaired immediately to the spot to ascertain the cause of so disastrous an occurrence. He found that in the universal panic which was every where spread upon the landing of the British, a report had reached Lt. Chauncey of the Navy, that all was lost, and upon the faith of this intelligence, he had given orders to fire the train which had been prepared previous to the action, to be used only in the most desperate issue of our affairs. Greatly relieved upon learning that the fire had not been caused by the

hand of the enemy, Gen. Brown went for a moment into Fort Tompkins, to observe how the party there were behaving.—He found Lt. Ketcham and his men conducting themselves bravely, but was informed that the heat from the burning storehouses was so great, that they would not much longer be able to maintain their position. After directing them to do all that was in their power, the General returned in haste to Backus' command, to explain to them the cause of the conflagration, and re-assure their confidence, which he knew would naturally be shaken by the apprehension that an enemy was operating in their rear. Very soon after this, Col. Backus received his mortal wound; Gen. Brown was standing near him when he fell, and spoke to him before he was carried from the field. The Colonel was perfectly composed and calm, and seemed only to regret that he could no longer render any service to his country. His brave troops had now for a long time borne almost the whole brunt of the battle. They had suffered dreadfully from the fire of the enemy, and had been at last compelled to retreat from the cover of the woods into the open space next the town. Here they had thrown themselves into some unfinished log barracks, and continued from thence to annoy the enemy, who made many desperate and gallant attempts to dislodge them, but without avail. Gen. Brown was determined to make one great and final effort in favor of these devoted men, who would not, he foresaw, be able much longer to make head against the great odds opposed to them, unless they should be assisted by a reinforcement or a diversion in their favor.

In order to arrest the flight of such of the fugitive militia as were still within a short distance of the field of battle, he sent out by all the roads leading from the Harbor, mounted dragoons, with orders to proclaim *Victory!* Those who had not been willing to fight when their services were really needed, might nevertheless be ready enough to return to the scene of action, when, as they supposed, all danger was over. Accordingly many came back and joined those who had not quitted the village, amounting in all to about 300 men. They had assembled without the least order, in the Eastern part of the town, about a mile and a half from where the battle was still raging. Many of them were drinking and carousing, and none manifested any intention of going to the relief of their suffering comrades. Gen. Brown rode amongst them highly incensed at this shameful behavior, and upbraided them severely for their cowardly conduct! His passions were highly excited, and such was the cutting severity of his rebuke, that many, even in that crowd of recreants, conscience stricken and penitent, begged to be led once more against the enemy, that they might have an opportunity of retrieving their charac-

ters. By means of promises, threats, and even, in some cases, of actual violence, the General succeeded in bringing these men into order, and from the sensibility to shame which many had manifested, he now felt assured that they might be relied upon in the face of the enemy. They were accordingly put in motion, with orders to march by the skirts of the woods, in sight of the enemy, and threaten to turn his right flank and cut him off from his boats. This movement decided the fate of the day. The British almost worn out by the obstinate resistance of the troops in their front, and finding their rear thus menaced, saw the necessity of finally desisting from their attempt, and securing their retreat. In their last charge they had lost a brave officer, Ass't. Adj. Gen. Gray, who fell while gallantly leading an attack on the log houses. The enemy at first retired slowly and in good order, but they very soon broke and fled with precipitation to their boats, where they embarked before the Americans could arrrive to prevent them, leaving a part of their dead and wounded on the field. Shortly before the British retreated, Sir George Prevost and Sir James Yeo were seen on shore with their Staff, in the rear of the left of their line.

Thus by his energy and skilful Generalship, the American commander was enabled to save Sackett's Harbor from the enemy, even after his original plans for its defence had entirely failed. The loss on both sides in this action was very severe. The British acknowledge 150 men killed and wounded, but the number must have been much greater: 25 English privates were found dead on the field; 2 captains and 20 privates were found wounded, and including the wounded, 2 captains, 1 ensign, and 32 privates were taken prisoners.—Between 1000 and 1200 of the enemy's troops were landed, who remained on shore, according to the British account, about 3 hours. On the American side there were 154 killed, wounded and missing. Among the killed was Col. Mills of the militia, who died early in the action; the gallant Backus was mortally wounded. The loss on the side of the Americans, was principally sustained by the Dragoons, full one-third of whom were either killed or wounded. Though these troops had never before met an enemy, they behaved with a degree of intrepidity which could not have been exceeded by veteran troops, and the commanding General, though he afterwards saw much hard fighting, has been repeatedly heard to declare, that on no occasion did he ever witness a greater display of heroism than they exhibited. During the action, the enemy's fleet got under way and stood towards the Harbor, but they could not safely approach very near, as the wind was light, and in a direction unfavorable to them. The fleet during the engagement, partially co-operated with the land force,

but their fire did not produce much effect. Very soon after the action, the enemy sent ashore a flag of truce, with a request that the surgeon who accompanied it, might be permitted to attend upon their wounded, which request was granted. Had not Lieut. Chauncey, acting upon false information, unfortunately ordered the store-houses to be destroyed, whereby property was lost to the amount of $500,000,—the success on our part would have been complete. Capt. McNitt and his volunteers behaved gallantly, as did Lt. Ketcham and those under his command; the other regular troops also did much hard fighting. The good conduct of Maj. Swan, who acted as Adjutant General, is particularly noticed in one of the official accounts of this action. Though the main body of the militia men shamefully fled at the beginning of the day, they at last undoubtedly turned the scale in our favor, by the demonstration they made of seizing the enemy's boats.

Late in the afternoon of the 29th, Col. Tuttle arrived at Sackett's Harbor, with about 450 Regulars. He had heard of the attack, and had pushed on by a forced march, but could not arrive in time to participate in the defence. A few days after the battle, Commodore Chauncey came down the Lake with news of the capture of Fort George on the 27th, and Gen. Brown returned to Brownville.

Col. Backus survived eight days; he retained full possession of his faculties to the last, and his friends for a long time flattered themselves with hopes of his recovery, but mortification had taken place internally, and he died without a groan.

FROM THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

RECOLLECTIONS OF A SEA LIFE

By a Midshipman of the Last Century.

At this time, too, we lost one of our primest men, the gunner's mate, who had saved the ship in the North Sea, by discovering that the gun-tackles had been cut. In the morning, about eight o'clock, we had spread the awnings, and prepared, as well as we could, for another burning day, when he was performing some trifling work outside of the hull of the ship, and, slipping his hold, fell overboard. He swam well, and endeavored to catch hold of the ship as she glided past him, and of ropes that were thrown to him; but nobody seemed to be aware of the rate at which we were going, for although it was perfectly calm on deck, the lofty sails were filled with a light air of wind which was right aft, and we were sliding along at the rate of about three knots. It was not until he was astern

that the helm was put down, and an endeavor made to clear the boat; but, in the boisterous weather we had been accustomed to encounter, the quarter-boats had been lashed and secured as if it were intended that they never should be lowered again. By the time she was ready for lowering, the man was a full cable's length on the weather-beam of the ship, which had been hove-to. He was still swimming, with his head well above water, and until now had been silent; but at this time he gave a piercing scream of despair, and we saw him no more. It was said that a shark must have seized him, as he disappeared so suddenly; but it is more probable that he had been taken with cramp, or his power of swimming had been exhausted; for, although, when the boat arrived on the spot, too late to see any thing of him, the people in her picked up his hat, they saw no traces of blood in the water, and had a shark taken him, the water would, probably, have been stained with it.—In the only instance of this kind I ever witnessed, the water was covered with blood to a great extent. The loss of this poor man seemed to throw a gloom over us all: he was one of the best men in the ship; and although we had had some hair-breadth escapes, and broken up an enemy's squadron, he was the first man we had lost since we left England. The manner of his death, too, in a fine calm morning—illustrating the poet's conception of danger which "frowns in the storm, but in the sunshine strikes"—increased the feeling for him: at least, I know that I did not get his last and only scream out of my head for a long time. The converse of the poet's conception of danger, namely, its only frowning in the storm, every man who has been accustomed to brave it becomes familiar with; as also with the fact, that it looks much more formidable at a distance than when fairly encountered.

Long after the incident I have just related, I lent a hand to save the life of a man on whom the danger seemed to frown much more than on our poor friend, the gunner's mate. We were coming across the Atlantic in a 74 alone; it had been blowing a gale all night from the N. W. We were under a reefed foresail and close-reefed maintopsail, top-gallant yards on deck, and top-gallant masts struck. During the morning watch, the gale increased so much that it was thought right to send the top-gallant masts on deck. I was first lieutenant of the ship, and at seven bells (half-past seven) I took charge of the ship, and permitted the officer of the watch to go below to perform his toilet, and prepare for breakfast. When the masts were sent down, one of the forecastle men, who had gone into the lee fore-chains, to gather in the slack of the top-gallant backstays, was washed out by a violent lurch of the ship; and the "flying cords," torn from his grasp by the weather-roll, left him at the mercy of the "tumbling billows of the deep."

He swam well, however, and buffetted them with lusty sinews. The mainhatch-way-gratings happened to have been got up on the poop, for the purpose of stowing the hammocks upon them, which could not be kept in their accustomed place by reason of the roughness of the sea. On the impulse of the moment, one of those gratings was thrown overboard to the man,—"Down with the helm!"—"Man the foreclew-garnets!"—"Clear away the lee-quarter boat!" were orders soon given; and while the fore-sail was hauling up, and the boat being cleared away, I jumped into the chain, to ask the Captain whether she should be lowered.

There are times in the open ocean when the attempt to despatch a boat from the ship would be attended with instant and certain death to all who should be sent in her. Short of this, there are times also when the prospect of such a result may make the question of, whether a boat shall be despatched, one of anxious consideration for the officer who is to give the answer; particularly if he himself is not to partake of the risk.—Our Captain was placed in this situation; when, looking from the cabin windows. he saw the man reach the grating, and secure his floating by a good hold of it. This determined him. He answered, "Yes." When I got on deck again, the boat was ready for lowering; but as yet, there was nobody in her. In ordinary cases a four-oared boat would have been despatched from a seventy-four with a midshipman or some other officer of less consideration than a first lieutenant; who, indeed, is never sent on business detached from the ship, except it be to attack an enemy. Here there was no time to be lost, and I felt that the onus rested on me to order men into the boat, or to show them the example by going myself. The last was the shortest mode, and the "come along" which accompanied my spring out of the mizen rigging, was answered by men crowding to follow. We did not want a crowd; and when the first four had got in, I ordered the rest back, and directed the men at the tackles to lower away.

The boat was a small one of four oars, built of very light wood, and had taken the place of a large heavy one, which had been damaged; so that the tackles were too large for her;—and her weight was hardly sufficient to draw the ropes through their pullies. The stern tackle was lowered more freely than the other; and the more the stern of the boat went down, the more the rope of the foremast tackle was jammed in the pullies by lying obliquely to their direction, so that it stuck fast. The roaring of the wind and sea made the orders given from the outside of the ship, not easily heard; and our calling out to "hold fast the stern-tackle," was not attended to until the stern of the boat came bang down upon the sea with every lee-lurch, while her bow was still suspended by the foremost tackle,

which could not be unhooked; and again, with the weather-roll, we took a flying leap into the air, of twenty or thirty feet. We were retained in the performance of these involuntary vaultings until they had been several times repeated. I had hung the rudder, and held by the after tackle in order to be in readiness to unhook it and throw it clear of the boat; but when it slackened, by her stern coming on the water, I luckily had presence of mind enough, before I did so, to look forward, in order to see if the fore tackle was ready to be unhooked at the same time; and as the boat was hung by it, to hold fast. Had I suffered the after tackle to be unhooked, we should have been swung into the air by the one tackle alone, and coming down with the lee-lurch right on end, we should have been dashed, not on the water, but into it. The remedy was at length perceived: a man was sent out on the david to overhaul the foremost tackle; we unhooked, and got clear of the ship.

We had nothing now but fair play, and a rough sea to encounter. To pull to windward was the least dangerous part of our task; and we rose over the precipitous waves that met us like a sea-gull. When we had worked at this for about a quarter of an hour, we began to fear that our labour was in vain. We had as yet seen nothing of the man; and we now supposed that we must have passed over the place where he had fallen, and that he had gone down. The men looked wistfully at the ship, which was driving fast to leeward. "Let us give way, and try to find the grating, and then we shall be sure." They again plied their oars. In a high sea it is not easy for a person seated in a little boat to see any thing floating which does not rise much above the surface: in fact, it is physically impossible, except at such time as the boat and the object looked for happen to be each on the top of a wave at the same instant. From the top of one wave the surface of the water can only be seen between it and the next: the heads of the more remote, only show themselves on a level with the nearest ones. Thus we had as yet seen nothing of him, and had nearly given up the endeavour, when the happy coincidence of our rising to the top of a wave at the same time with him occurred. I *fancied* that I saw for an instant an erected arm, and called out to encourage the men. The next wave on which we rose removed all doubt, and showed us the man still boldly floating nearly breast high, supported by the grating, and not far from us. A little more rowing enabled us to reach him: the bowman laid in his oar, and pulled him on board.—Having accomplished this, he laid hold of the grating to pull it in also. This operation appeared to add to the dangerous situation of the boat by pressing her bows down into waves over which she already seemed to rise as by a miracle. I therefore

called out to the bowman to quit it, and resume his oar; but the man, with more coolness and more foresight than myself, remonstrated by saying, "It may be useful to us, sir." He was allowed to proceed, and followed up his precaution by putting the grating carefully under the thwarts, or seats, of the boat. It was lucky he did so; for the buoyant power of the grating thus placed, added to the lightness of the boat, made her a complete life-boat, and saved our lives.

Lord Byron observes, that a "tight boat will live in a rough sea;" and so she will, particularly when going with her bow to it. But it may prove too much for her, and is more likely to do so if following upon her quarter, as we now had it on our way back to the ship. The appearance of the waves as they curled over her, could hardly justify the hope of her surmounting them, as a black squall came on. After rising over many that appeared ready to swallow us, one fellow came, whose curving crest projected his head over us with all the gracefulness of a swan's neck. As the boat's stern rose erect on this wave, her head was pressed under the surface, and the wave impelling her forward, launched us under water while it rolled over us. At this moment several thoughts passed freely through my mind; the chief of which was, that the chance of meeting my friends again in this world was now up. We held instinctively to the boat, which came out on the other side of the wave, not keel up, as I should have expected: indeed, I cannot now understand how it was that the impelling power of the wave did not turn her over when it launched her under water head foremost. Out she came, however, on the other side of the wave, waddling like a duck. When we found that she was not to go down with us, we caught three out of the four oars; the other went astern with our hats and every loose thing in the boat. The lightness of the wood she was built of, and the buoyant principle of the grating, which now floated and pressed upwards against the thwarts, bore her up with her rollocks well out of the water; while, as she waddled from side to side, more of the water which was in her was thrown out. When I perceived this, I made the man whom we had saved, sit down in the bottom of the boat, with his head only above water, in order to his displacing his own bulk of it. He was a heavy man, and not now capable of much exertion.—Two of the men whose hats were saved by being fastened with rope-yarns, were employed to bale with them. The other two got their oars out, while I resumed my place at the helm, and steered for the ship no longer, but directly before the sea, across her wake. For some time it seemed labour in vain; and once, when we had got the boat half baled out, another sea, without the ceremony of lifting us, as the former had done, rolled over us; but we had learned by this time, that all is not

lost that is in danger; so we baled away again, and steered before the wind until we had got to leeward of the ship; watched an opportunity to round to; and being now able to pull for her with the sea on our bow, we ultimately got safe on board.

FROM THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

RECOLLECTIONS OF THE STORMING OF CIUDAD RODRIGO.

On a Comparison with recent Accounts.

The accounts of the storming of Ciudad Rodrigo contained in the "Reminiscences of a Subaltern," and in the "Sketch of the Storming" of that fortress, in your first number, forcibly recall to my mind the celebrated remark of Sir W. Raleigh, (when a prisoner in the Tower,) on the degree of credit to be attached to what is called history. They have also induced me to furnish up my recollection of the event they describe,—an event to which I also was an eye-witness, and therefore competent to give my version of the business; and to explain some circumstances connected with the attack, which were not before sufficiently understood.

Attached to the 77th regiment in the third division, I shared the fortunes of that corps on the night of the 19th of January, 1812. We marched on the morning of that day from our quarters at Guard-a-Pero, to take our turn in the trenches. It was somewhat ominous of hard knocks, that the division which we were to relieve did not return as usual to our quarters for the enjoyment of its customary two day's rest, but halted in the neighborhood. M'Kinnon's brigade went into the trenches on our arrival at our ground, and we, (Campbell's) in the absence of Colville, lounged away the day by our fires, gravely or gaily moralizing, or joking, or chewing the cud of sweet or bitter fancy, as suited the anticipations of each individual, for certain symptoms plainly indicated that the assault would take place that night.

It was six o'clock—the firing on both sides had slackened, but not ceased—their instructions had been for some time in the possession of our chiefs, who were all bustle and mystery; soon the 5th and 77th were ordered to fall in, and we proceeded some distance to the extreme right of the ground occupied by the division, where we halted; and while the men hammered at flints, and made the customary preparations for business, the order was communicated to us.

"The 5th regiment will attack the entrance of the ditch at the junction of the counterscarp with the main wall of the place.

Major Sturgeon will show them the point of attack. They must issue from the right of the Convent of Santa Cruz. They must have twelve axes, in order to cut down the gate by which the ditch is entered at the junction of the counterscarp with the body of the place. The 5th regiment is likewise to have twelve scaling ladders, twenty-five feet long; and immediately on entering the ditch, are to scale the *Fausse Braye*, in order to clear it of the enemy's parties, on their left, towards the principal breach. It will throw over any guns it may meet with, and will proceed along the *Fausse Braye* to the breach in the *Fausse Braye* where it will wait until Major General M'Kinnon's column has passed on to the main attack, when it will follow in its rear.

"This regiment will make its attack at ten minutes before seven o'clock. The 77th regiment will be in reserve on the right of the Convent of Santa Cruz."

We of the 77th looked somewhat blank at the idea of remaining in reserve; and our Colonel, a regular fire-eater, issued his directions with a grim countenance, and a voice fierce from disappointment. Rest your souls in peace, brave Ridge and gallant Dunkin,—though peace was little to your tastes in life,—finer fellows never cheered men to an assault; but Dunkin wanted that moderation and discretion which tempered Ridge's bravery. They alone ordered the colours to accompany their regiment—a rash act, considering that our united numbers little exceeded three hundred firelocks, and one that might have much embarrassed us in the work we had in hand: it was Dunkin's proposal. Whilst waiting in the gloom, somewhat impatiently, for the return of the men sent for the ladders, and for Major Sturgeon's appearance, we mingled in groups of officers, conversing and laughing together with that callous thoughtlessness which distinguishes the old campaigner. I well remember how poor M'Dougall of the 5th, recently joined from the Staff, was quizzed about his dandy moustaches.—When next I saw him, in a few short hours, he was a lifeless and a naked corpse. Suddenly a horseman galloped heavily, but hastily towards us—it was Picton. He made a brief and inspiriting appeal to us: said he knew the 5th were men whom a severe fire would not daunt, and that he reposed equal confidence in the 77th. A few kind words to our Commander, and he bade us God speed—pounding the sides of his hog-maned cob as he trotted off in a different direction.

Major Sturgeon and the ladders having arrived, we again moved off about half before seven. The night was, if any thing, dark, the stars lending but sufficient light to enable us to find our way; and where the ground permitted it, to trace the dim outline of the fortress. I do not recollect that the moon shone out during the attack. We were enjoined to

observe the strictest silence: a neglect of this order occasioned great confusion and the loss of many lives, as will be seen in the course of my narrative. It was a time of thrilling excitement as we wound our way by the right; at first preserving the distance of eleven or twelve hundred yards from the town, then bending in towards the convent of Santa Cruz and the river, and gradually narrowing the space betwixt us and the fortifications. The awful stillness of the hour was unbroken, save by the soft measured tread of our little columns as we passed over the green turf, or by the occasional report of a cannon from the walls, and the rush and miss of its ball as it flew past us, or striking short, bounded from the earth over our heads, receiving our most respectful, though involuntary salaams. I have before said, that the firing had slackened, but not ceased; every two or three minutes a shot was fired at some suspicious quarter, and that by which we were moving seemed to be honoured by their peculiar attention. We had accomplished, perhaps, half our way, when a loose firing of musketry was opened from the ramparts, utterly aimless, and apparently intended as a hint that we should not catch the garrison napping; yet they subsequently acknowleged that they never contemplated the assault being made that night.—Though unseen, we were quite within reach of their fire, and escaped surprisingly; yet I can distinctly remember the sharp crashing sound of a bullet, which, striking a steady old serjeant, (within a pace or two of me,) in the centre of the forehead, pierced his brain, dashing him on his back. Two or three men went back wounded.

We had approached the convent, and whilst passing under its walls, we found there the light company of the 94th, awaiting the hour of seven, when they were to commence a brisk fire against the ramparts from the glacis, to distract the attention of the enemy. After exchanging greetings with our old friends, Bogle and Griffiths, the latter gravely promising me Christian burial the next morning; we pushed on right forward to the walls, which now loomed high and near. I will not undertake to explain the circumstances or misconception which caused us (the 77th) to proceed, instead of halting at the convent according to the original plan; but I imagine there must have been some new directions communicated by Sturgeon, who led us to our point of attack, and then quitted us for the purpose of guiding some other party.

We reached the low glacis, through which we discovered a pass into the ditch, somewhat resembling a wide embrazure, heavily palisadoed, with a gate in the centre. I describe matters not technically, but exactly according to the impressions they made at the moment, and which are still fresh in my recollection. Through the palisadoes were visible the dark and

lofty old Moorish walls, whilst high over our heads was the great keep or citadel, a massive square tower, which, as it was relieved against the sky, seemed like a giant frowning on the scene. We still were undiscovered, though we could distinguish the arms of the men on the ramparts, as they were levelled and fired from the parapets, in idle bluster, the balls whistling over us. Eagerly, though silently, we all pressed towards the palisadoes, as the men with hatchets began to cut away through them; the sound of the blows would not, I do think, have been heard by the enemy, who were occupied by their own noises, had it not been for the enthusiasm so characteristic of his country, which induced a newly joined ensign, fresh from the wilds of Kerry, to utter a tremendous war-hoop as he saw the first paling fall before our efforts. The cheer was immediately taken up by the men, and as we instantly got convincing proofs that we were discovered by our friends on the walls, (who began to pepper us soundly,) we all rushed through the opening, the two regiments mingled together. We were in the ditch, heavily fired on from rampart and tower with musketry, but I do not recollect that they had any cannon bearing on us there; however they tossed down light shells, and hand-grenades innumerable, which spun about fizzing and hissing amongst our feet. Some smashed men's heads in their descent, whilst others, exploding on the ground, tossed unlucky wretches in the air, tearing them asunder. I have seldom passed three or four minutes less comfortably; I think that time was consumed in bringing in and fixing the ladders against a wall to our left about twenty-five feet high, which I understood to be the extremity of the *fausse braye*. We crowded towards the ladders, and in good sooth there was little to praise in our eagerness to get out of our trap, helpless and exposed as we were.

Among the first to mount was the gallant chieftain of the 5th, but the love they bore him caused so many of his soldiers to follow on the same ladder, that it broke in two, and they all fell, many being hurt by the bayonets of their comrades round the foot of the ladder. Ridge's ancle was sprained, but it did not prevent his pursuing his career that night. I was not one of the last in ascending, and on raising my head to the level of the top of the wall, I beheld some of our fellows demolishing a picquet which had been stationed at that spot and had stood on the defensive; they had a good fire of wood wherewith to cheer themselves, round which, on revisiting the place in the morning, I saw their dead bodies stript, strangely mingled wirh wounded English officers and men, who had passed the night before the fire, patiently awaiting the means of removal, the fortune of war having made them acquainted with strange bedfellows. A few of the picquet, who fled along the ditch, bore

with them an officer of the 5th, taking him into the town through a sally-port of the wall. He was led to the house of the governor, who questioned him as to the assault, the reality of which he seemed to doubt, and on departing for the breach he took the officer's parole to remain in the house.—Being thus excluded from participation in the action, he amused himself in reconnoitreing the premises, and repaid himself for his confinement by securing the governor's splendid case of pistols—a fair booty. Our ascent of the ladders placed us in the *fausse braye*, a broad deep ditch, in which we were for the moment free from danger. When about one hundred and fifty men had mounted, (after the little interlude with the picquet) we moved forward at a rapid pace along the ditch, or *fausse braye*, cowering in close to the wall, whilst over our heads we heard the shouts and cries of alarm and preparation. Our course was soon arrested by the massive fragments and crumbling ruins of the main breach, extending half across the ditch. Here then should have ceased the operations of our little band, according to the letter of the order, and here also ought my narrative to conclude, all that followed having been so repeatedly described by abler pens. But I write for my own amusement, and as an exercise of memory, and therefore shall continue my description.

The situation in which we now were placed was one of extreme danger and embarrassment; instead of falling into the rear of a column supposed to have already carried the breach, we stood alone at its base, exposed to a tremendous fire of grape and musketry from its defences, whilst we were in danger of being assaulted in the rear by a sortie through the sally-port in the ditch already mentioned. For a minute we seemed destined to be sacrificed to some mistake as to the hour of attack, but suddenly we heard a cheer from a body of men who crowning the summit of the counterscarp, flung down bags filled with heather to break their fall, and leaped on them into the ditch; it was the old Scotch Brigade, which, like us, having been intended as a support, was true to its time, and was consequently placed in the same predicament with ourselves.—On the appearance of the 94th, the fire of the garrison was redoubled, and after a moment's consultation between the seniors, it was decided to be better to die like men on the breach than like dogs in the ditch, and instantly with a wild hurra all sprung upwards, absolutely eating fire. I think the breach must have been seventy or eighty feet wide; the 94th took it on the right, we on the left extremity as you look to the country, and I affirm, it would have been a work of no small labour, to have achieved the ascent under any circumstances, consisting as it did of a nearly perpendicular mass of loose rubbish, in which it was extremely difficult to obtain a footing.

As our serious intentions were now evident to them, the enemy developed and employed their entire means of defence; two guns pointed downwards from the flanks, and had time to fire several rounds of grape, working fearful destruction, particularly in the 94th. On the margin of the breach were ranged a quantity of shells, which were lighted and rolled down amongst us, acting rather as a stimulus to push up and avoid their explosion; the top of the breach was defended by a strong body of the garrison, who maintained a heavy fire of musketry, and showed for some time an undaunted countenance. Hand-grenades and fireballs were not wanting, nor yet the agreeable accompaniment of a heavy fire from a distant flanking demi-bastion, which bore on the foot of the breach and crest of the glacis where the 45th and 88th, who were just arriving in time to do good service, suffered very severely by it. As we struggled up, the resistance, though not perhaps as determined as it might have been, was still sufficiently formidable to have daunted the bravest. However, with all its defects, a night attack has the advantage of concealing from the view much of danger and of difficulty, that if seen might shake the nerves. But there was no time then for hesitation, no choice for the timid; the front ranks were forced onwards by the pressure from the rear, and as men fell wounded on the breach, there they found their (living) grave, being trodden into and covered by the shifting rubbish displaced by the feet of their comrades. Some few more lucky, when wounded, rolled down the slope into the ditch, where they called in vain for that assistance which could not then be afforded them, and they added by their outcries to the wildness of the scene. Such a struggle could not be of long duration, and the efforts of our men, reinforced as we were by the two last named regiments, were in a few moments crowned with success: the enemy's resistance slackened, and they suddenly fled on before us, escaping to right and left by boards laid across cuts through the terra-pleine, by which cuts the breach was isolated; the boards they left behind in their panic.

It was now seven o'clock, the breach was carried, and the town virtually ours. A voice was heard to shout above the uproar. "They run, they run!" All crowded on the summit of the breach, and some spoke of forming the men on the rampart; but on that spot there was no safety, for we had scarcely attained it, when a deadly fire was opened on us from a breast-work about twenty yards distant and beneath, formed from the ruins of some houses, of loose stones, and lined with men. Many of our people threw themselves on their faces, and in that position returned the fire with good effect, as I observed, on the following morning, more than forty of the

garrison lying dead behind the breast-work, shot through their heads,—the only part of them exposed to our fire.

One portion of our fellows, led by General M'Kinnon, proceeded to the left along the rampart, and turned the right flank of the breast-work (which was oppuyéed against the walls,) and there firing on them, dispersed the enemy. About that time, the expense magazine blew up on the rampart, destroying the general and many with him, as well as such of the garrison as were at that end of the breast-work; behind which I saw the next day a number of blackened and mutilated corpes, hideous and shapeless, friends and foes, mingled in one common destruction. I distinctly remember the moment of the explosion, and the short pause it occasioned in our proceedings,—a pause that enabled us to distinguish the noise of the attack still going forward in the direction of the little breach.

I accompanied a party which pushed across a board to our right, for the purpose of clearing the rampart (on that side) of the enemy, who still fired on us, but fled on the first demonstration of attack. Then it was that a gigantic young Irish volunteer, attached to our regiment, was said to have uttered that exclamation of surprise at the facility with which he could deprive a human being of life, that became celebrated afterwards throughont the division. Observing a gallant artilleryman still lingering near his gun, he dashed at him with bayonet fixed and at the charge. The man stepped backwards, facing his foe, but, his foot slipping, he fell against the gun, and in a moment the young fellow's bayonet was through his heart: the yell with which he gave up the ghost so terrified B—— that he started back, the implement of death in his hands, and apostrophizing it, was heard to say, "Holy Moses! how easy you went into him!" As the first taste of blood rouses the latent fierceness of the tiger's whelp, so this event seemed to have altered B——'s nature, and, doubtless led to his subsequent misfortunes and premature death.

No enemy being now visible on the ramparts, and the men who lined the breast-work having fled, we advanced in pursuit, dropping from the wall into the town. At first we were among ruins; but having extricated ourselves from them, we made our way into a large street leading nearly in a straight line from the principal breach to the plaça or square: up this street we fought our way, the enemy slowly retiring before us. At about half the length of the street was a large open space on our left hand, where was deposited the immense battering train of "the army of Portugal," and its matériel.—Amongst this crowd of carriages, a number of men ensconced themselves, firing on us as we passed, and it required no small exertion on our part to dislodge them. Such of them

as were caught suffered for their temerity. In the meantime, those of the enemy a-head of us were lost to sight, having entered the square; for which place we pushed on with as many men as we could lay hands on, formed, without distinction of regiments, into two or three platoons; for the great proportion of those who had started with us had gradually sneaked off into the bye-streets for the purpose of plundering, which business was already going on merrily. As we reached the head of the street (which entered the square at one angle,) and wheeled to the left into the open space, we received a shattering volley from the enemy, which quickly spoiled our array. They were drawn up in force in the square and under the colonnade of the cathedral, and we were for the moment checked by their fire, which we returned from the head of the street, waiting for a reinforcement. At length, when we were meditating a dash at the fellows, we heard a fire opened from another quarter, which seemed to strike them with a panic, for on our giving a cheer and moving forward, they to a man threw away their arms as if by word of command, and disappeared in the gloom like magic. It was the light division who entered the square by a street leading from the little breach, and their opportune arrival had frightened the game which we had brought to bay, leaving the pavement of the square covered with arms and accoutrements. Resistance had ceased, and the town was captured. The subsequent transactions of that night, the sack of the town, destruction of a part by fire, and other circumstances, have been frequently and sufficiently described by abler pens than mine. It is enough for me to relate such part of the proceedings connected with the actual fighting as I was an eye-witness to.

On reading the official account of the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo, we were all greatly chagrined to find that no mention had been made of the share which the 77th had in the business, although praise was bestowed in general terms on Col. Dunkin, who commanded us in the absence of Col. Bromhead (who had gone home on leave, after having reaped a full harvest of glory by his gallantry and self-possession at El Bodon.) A respectful and explanatory letter was written to Lord Wellington, forwarded, I think, by Picton; the answer to which expressed his lordship's regret at not having been aware of all the circumstances at the time the despatch was hastily written; that, in the plan of attack, it was not intended the 77th should have been employed in it, unless in case of necessity, and it was not until after his despatch had been sent off, that he was apprised of their having been so actively engaged. He then expressed his sense of their gallantry and good conduct, doing the regiment full justice. Such was the purport, if not the actual words of, Lord Wellington's reply.

On recalling to mind the proceedings of that night, I feel satisfied myself, (and I think I shall be supported by the survivors of the third division,) that the 5th, 77th, and 94th were in the main breach before the light division had proceeded to assault the lesser one; and I have no hesitation in asserting that it was the prior success at the main breach of the five regiments employed there, which shook the defenders of the little one, and caused them to yield it so easy a conquest to the light division, and to seek their safety in flight. In plainer terms, I mean to say—differing, with all courtesy, from the statement of the author of the account of the capture published in your first number,—that the light division was indebted to the third division for the ease with which it succeeded at its point of attack, and not the reverse, as is more than insinuated by that writer. As to our being in a trap on the top of the breach, it is (with respect be it spoken) fudge. The breach was not cut off by traverses, but by deep ditches, over which the boards of communication were left by the enemy in their hasty flight. I think the timely escalade of the 83d and O'Toole's Portuguese must have hastened the success of the operations of the night.

I repeat it, that no one can be more sensible than I am of the zeal, discipline, and good humor with which the light division performed the troublesome duties imposed on them; but that their merits surpassed those of their brothers in arms to the degree claimed by them, and apparently conceded by their superiors, I deny. The system of puffing histories and memoirs of the feats of the light division can only be equalled by the similar quackeries practised by the injudicious friends of the Highland regiments after Waterloo, turning the really brilliant actions of those gallant corps into burlesque and ridicule.

It will be considered, I am sure, most startling and heretical to question for a moment the superiority of the light division over the rest of the Peninsular army. I may fail in convincing others, but I am myself aware that, at Rodrigo, the merit must be divided (and in no equal portions) with the third division. I remember that, at Badajos, when they failed, the third division, by taking the castle, gained the town; that, at Sabugal, when in a most awkward scrape, we rescued them; and where, in their whole career, can they produce one instance to equal in splendour the conduct of the 5th and 77th at El Bodon—and yet those two regiments were not even permitted to record that event by inscribing the word upon their colours.

The disadvantages of relying solely upon two or three regiments for the performance of the outpost duties and skirmishing are obvious, and are, I trust, about to be remedied. The

instruction and practice of light infantry evolutions are now insisted on throughout the army,—let us hope with the view of enabling every regiment to take the advance when necessary, and to perform all those light duties in the field which have hitherto been entrusted to a few favored corps.—C. J. T. S.

LIEUTENANTS OF THE NAVY.

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY,

Transmitting a List of Lieutenants of the Navy, and an account of the Sea Service performed by each since his promotion; made in obedience to a resolution of the House of Representatives of 23d February, 1832.

Referred to the Committee on Naval Affairs June 16, 1832.

NAVY DEPARTMENT, *June* 13, 1832.

SIR: Since my communication of February 27th,* on the subject of the services of Lieutenants in the Navy, I have been enabled to complete my answer to the 6th enquiry, then left unfinished for reasons detailed in that communication.

The annexed document shows, with as much accuracy as can be obtained from our records, the sea service performed by each of the present Lieutenants since his promotion.

The 3d and 4th enquiries are all that remain unanswered. They are both under examination in the office of the Fourth Auditor; but, as stated in my former report, a reply cannot, in his opinion, be prepared accurately, without the labor of three or four additional clerks, till the next session of Congress.

Whenever it is prepared, it will give me great pleasure to forward it without delay.

I have the honor to be, sir,

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

LEVI WOODBURY.

To the Hon. ANDREW STEVENSON,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.

LIST OF LIEUTENANTS in the Navy of the United States, and an account of the sea service performed by each since his promotion; made in obedience to a resolution of the House of Representatives of 23d February, 1832.

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	*Yrs.*	*Mos.*
24th July, 1813			
J. P. Oellers	Franklin, Jackall, and sloop Boston, 39 mos. On the Lakes from 1st April, 1814, to 4th March, 1815, 11months	4	2

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
9th Dec. 1814			
Jno. P. Zantzinger	Hornet, Weasel, U. States, Porpoise, and Cyane, 60 months, Commanding schr. Dolphin 3 months and 23 days	5	3
C. E. Crowley	Guerriere, Franklin 74, schooner Shark, and sloop Erie	3	10
John H. Bell	Erie and Constellation, 71 months. Commanding schr. Porpoise, 13 months	7	
W. A. C. Farragut	Enterprise and West India squadron	1	11
Stephen Champlin	None: disabled by wounds received in action with the enemy		
4th Feb. 1815			
Isaac Mayo	Dolphin, Hornet, North Carolina 74, and Mediterranean squadron, 69 months. Commanding schr Grampus 12 months	6	9
W. K. Latimer	Erie, Macedonian, and Pacific squadron, and West Indies, 91 months. Commanding schr. Grampus 40 months	10	11
W. Mervine	Alligator, Grampus, and Natchez, 47 months. In command of schr. Experiment 2 months	4	1
T. Crabb	Mediterranean squadron, Constellation, Peacock, and Java	7	1
1st May, 1815			
E. B. Babbitt	Independence, Saranac, schr. Hornet, sloop Boston, and frigate Guerriere	7	7
1st Dec. 1815			
T. Paine	Gunboat No 168	3	
27th April, 1816			
J. Armstrong	Congress and Columbus 68 months; frigate United States, (Pacific) 40 months; in command of schr. Porpoise since February, 1832, 4 months	9	4
Jos. Smoot	Nonsuch and Macedonian 73 months; frigate United States, in Pacific, 40 months	9	5
R. B. Randolph	Nonsuch and Constellation 48 months; North Carolina 74, and Mediterranean squadron, 48 months.	8	
S. L. Breese	North Carolina 74, and Alert, 22 months; flying squadron, Hornet, Constitution, and Lexington, 108 months	10	10
J. Evans	Alert, Peacock, Washington 74, and Erie	5	10
B. Page, Jr.	Franklin, Congress, and Natchez, 60 months. In command of schr. Boxer since 7th Dec. 1831, 6 months	5	6
J. A. Wish	Macedonian, Alert, West India squadron, and Fairfield	8	1
J. Gwinn	Saranac, Hornet, Columbus, and Macedonian	8	6
T. W. Wyman	Congress, Enterprise, Constitution, and Java	10	2
A. Fitzhugh	Congress, John Adams, North Carolina 74, and Mediterranean squadron, 120 months; St. Louis, and in command of the Dolphin, in Pacific, 35 months.	12	11
Jos. Cross	Guerriere and W. India squadron, 24 months; Constitution, in Mediterranean, 8 months: Brandywine, in Pacific, 39 months	5	11
A. S. Ten Eick	Ontario, Decoy, and Delaware	7	4
J. White	Attached to the Peacock since Dec. 1831		6

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
H. Paulding	Constellation, Macedonian, frigate United States, and West Indies	9	7
J. D. Williamson	Franklin and Alligator 47 months; N. Carolina 74; Concord and Brandywine (now in latter) 56 months	8	7
5th March, 1817			
U. P. Levy	Franklin, Constitution, and gunboat No. 158, 42 months; Mediterranean squadron about 24 months	5	6
C. Boarman	John Adams, Erie, Java, and Hudson	5	7
F. Forrest	Despatch, Columbus, West India squadron, and Lexington	7	3
W. E. McKenney	Peacock, Nonsuch, and Enterprise; Mediterranean and West India squadrons; now under orders to the frigate United States	10	3
W. J. Belt	Washington, Columbus, and W. India squadron, 57 months;—Hornet, Hudson, and Natchez, 31 months	7	4
W. Jamesson	Alert, John Adams, and Congress, 24 months; West Indies, and sloop Boston, 42 months	5	6
W. Boerum	Nonsuch, Cyane, Constitution, & brig Spark, 53 months; Macedonian and Erie 42 mos. In command of schooner Shark since 25th Nov. 1830, 18 months	9	5
C. L. Williamson	Independence, John Adams, Grampus, and Delaware 74	4	10
C. Gauntt	Alert, Macedonian, and sloop Warren	7	10
W. W. Ramsay	Washington, Congress, J Adams, and Franklin, 69 months; Attached to the Pacific squadron about 24 months	7	9
R. Voorhees	Guerriere, Ontario, Cyane, and West Indies, 84 months; Brandywine, Erie, and Falmouth, 30 months	9	6
H. Henry	Torch, and Franklin 74	3	5
S. W. Downing	Prometheus, Franklin, John Adams, Peacock, W. India squadron, Constitution, and Vandalia, 96 months; commanding schr. Enterprise since Dec. 1831, 6 months	8	6
W. Pottenger	West Indies, Decoy, and Hudson	3	7
H. W. Ogden	Washington, John Adams, and Franklin, 70 months; Vincennes and Natchez 17 mos.	7	3
E. Ridgeway	Franklin and Delaware	9	10
T. A. Conover.	Constellation, Guerriere, Franklin, and Erie	8	7
A. S. Campbell	West India squadron, about	2	
W. Taylor	Congress, Columbus, and Hornet, 56 months; North Carolina 74, Ontario and Brandywine, 50 months		
J. C. Long	Boxer, Hornet, and Peacock 94 months; in command of schr. Dolphin since Decem. 1831, six months	8	
3d March, 1817			
J. H. Graham	None: disqualified by wounds previously received in service.		
J. H. Lee	Washington, Nonsuch, John Adams, Congress, and Natchez	4	10
1st April, 1818			
J. M. M'Intosh	Enterprise, West India, and Mediterranean		

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
	squadrons	6	7
Josiah Tatnall	Mediterranean and West Indies 82 months; commanding sloop Florida, surveying, 7 months; ordered to command the Grampus, 9th March, 1831, 15 months	8	8
H. N. Page	Alert, John Adams, and Peacock	9	2
J. A. Cook	John Adams, Peacock, West Indies, Porpoise, and Mediterranean squadron	6	2
W. Inman	Congress, Alligator, and West India squadron, 46 months; Concord and Java 12 months	4	10
Joel Abbot	Congress, Guerriere, and Mediterranean squadron	3	6
L. E. Simonds	Congress, John Adams, Macedonian, Pacific, and West India squadrons	5	4
J. M. Dale	Washington, Congress, Alligator, and Spark, 80 months; Constellation, John Adams, & Ontario, 16 months	8	
H. H. Cocke	Tombowline, Enterprise, and Nonsuch, 78 months; North Carolina 74, and Brandywine, 20 months; in the Fairfield since Sept 1831, 8 months	8	10
W. J. McCluney	Saranac, gunboat No. 158, Dolphin, and Mediterranean squadron	7	
Jas. Goodrum	Nonsuch, Mediterranean, and West India squadrons	5	5
J. B. Montgomery	Cyane, Erie, Peacock, and Natchez	7	8
H. B. Sawyer	Prometheus, Dolphin, Spark, and Warren	5	6
C. K. Stribling	Hornet, Constellation, Brandywine, and Vincennes	5	9
Joshua R. Sands 28th March, 1820	Washington, Franklin, Hornet and Vandalia	6	7
John J. Young	Shark and Hornet	3	4
C. H. Bell	Ontario and Erie	5	
A. Bigelow	Ontario and Macedonian (sailed recently in Constellation)	6	5
F. Ellery	Nonsuch, Cyane, Porpoise, Erie, and Shark	6	5
F. Varnum	Shark, John Adams, and Vincennes	6	11
Jos. R. Jarvis	Constitution, Constellation, and Mediterranean squadron	7	
T. W. Freelon	Washington, Brandywine, Grampus, Shark, and Hudson	5	2
Jas. Williams	John Adams, Spark, Peacock, Erie, and Porpoise	6	7
S. W. Lecompte	Hornet and Erie (sailed recently in Constellation)	3	7
C. T. Platt 3d March, 1821	Guerriere, Hornet, West Indies, and Java	4	1
W. M. Armstrong	Hornet, Congress, and Constitution	4	4
W. F. Shields	Shark, Mediterranean squadron, and Constitution, 65 months; sloop Warren since Aug 1831, 9 months	6	2
G. J. Pendergrast	Grampus, Lexington, and Mediterranean squadron	3	1
W. C. Nicholson 22d April, 1822	Frigate United States and Concord (now in latter)	5	8
J. B. Cooper	None		

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
13th Jan'y, 1825			
E. W. Carpender	Erie, Falmouth, and John Adams	5	7
J. L. Saunders	Frigate Java (now under orders to frigate U. States	2	0
J. B. Hull	Constitution and Guerriere	4	0
Jott S. Paine	West Indies and Mediterranean	3	10
J. E. Prentiss	West Indies and Pacific	4	1
J. M. Sullivan	Vincennes	3	10
Jos. Moorehead	Hornet and St. Louis	3	0
Thos. Petigru	Erie (now under orders to Mediterranean)	1	3
J. S. Chauncey	Ontario do do	1	6
I. Shubrick	Brandywine, Delaware 74, and Potomac (now in latter)	3	9
T. R. Gerry	John Adams (now on board)	1	1
John Kelley	Natchez	1	6
E. Byrne	West Indies and Delaware 74 (now under orders to frigate U. States)	2	10
E. S. Johnston	West Indies	2	0
W. H. Gardner	West Indies, Guerriere, Vandalia, Natchez, and Shark	2	9
D. G. Farragut	Brandywine and Vandalia	2	0
R. S. Pinckney	Brandywine	2	6
S. B. Wilson	West Indies and frigate Potomac (now in latter)	2	11
E. C. Rutledge	Cyane	1	8
W. S. Harris	Delaware 74, and Java	3	9
T. Dornin	Brandywine, Vincennes, and Falmouth (now in last)	5	1
R. B. Cunningham	West Indies, Brandywine, and Peacock (now in last)	4	5
Jas. Glynn	West Indies, Mediterranean squadron, and Lexington	2	2
Joseph Myers	Mediterranean squadron and Peacock, (now on passage to join the Lexington on coast of Brazil)	4	2
W. C. Wetmore	Dolphin and Guerriere	2	10
T. R. Gedney	North Carolina 74, and Warren, 54 months; sloop Florida, on survey, 7 months; commanding sloop Florida, on survey, 12 mos. (now on a survey of Narraganset bay)	6	1
John Bubier	United States and Lexington (now in latter)	2	6
V. M. Randolph	West Indies and sloop Boston	2	2
Jos. Cutts, Jr.	Hornet (insane)	1	0
J. Crowninshield	West Indies (now there)	1	7
Fred. Engle	West Indies, Brandywine, and Vincennes (now in latter)	5	6
A. J. D. Browne	Sloop Boston, (just sailed again in Constellation)	3	0
J. H. Smith	West Indies	0	9
John Rudd	West Indies and frigate Brandywine, (just sailed again in Constellation)	4	0
R. Ritchie	West Indies and Mediterranean	3	2
D. R. Stewart	Mediterranean squadron and schooner Shark, (just sailed in Constellation)	1	10
W. W. McKean	Delaware 74, and sloop Warren	2	0
F. Buchanan	West Indies and Mediterranean	5	0
H. H. Hobbs	West Indies	2	0

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
Saml. Mercer	John Adams	0	6
Chas. Lowndes	West Indies, Falmouth, and Natchez	3	3
L. M. Goldsborough	Mediterranean squadron	3	1
G. N. Hollins	Grampus, Hornet, and Ontario	4	11
D. N. Ingraham	Lexington	2	6
J. Marston, Jr.	Brandywine	4	0
Henry Bruce	West India squadron (now there)	3	2
W. D. Newman	West Indies and coast of Brazil (now on latter)	2	10
H. A. Adams	West India squadron (now there)	2	7
Alex. B. Pinkham	Do.	2	11
Jas. D. Knight	Fairfield	2	9
Jos. Mattison	Vandalia and Hudson	2	9
W. S. Walker	Erie and Warren (now in latter)	2	0
Alex. Slidell	Brandywine (now in her)	2	6
J. G. Boughan	Constellation and Grampus	3	11
G. F. Pearson 28th April, 1826	Porpoise and Boston	3	6
J. T. Gerry	Mediterranean squadron (now there)	3	1
J. S. Nicholas	Schooner Dolphin and John Adams (now in latter)	4	1
S. F. Dupont	Mediterranean squadron	4	2
W. L. Hudson	Sloop Warren	2	11
W. H. Campbell	West India squadron (now there)	2	3
Jos. M. Nicholson	None: insane.		
Jas. P. Wilson	West India squadron	2	6
G. A. Magruder	Vincennes	3	11
J. E. Calhoun	Macedonian	2	0
John Pope	Constitution	2	2
Levin M. Powell	Delaware 74	2	5
C. Wilkes, Jr.	Sloops Boston and Fairfield (Now on survey of Narraganset bay,)	1	0
Elisha Peck	Mediter. and Pacific squadrons, now in latter,	4	1
John R. Coxe	Mediter., West India, and Brazilian squadrons (now in last)	3	9
W. Seton	West Indies	1	0
John A. Carr	Mediterranean squadron	2	3
T. J. Manning	Mediterranean and West India squadrons	3	9
W. Pearson	Ditto ditto	3	7
W. L. Howard	Erie and Enterprise (now in latter)	1	6
W. P. Piercy	Sloop Florida, on a survey, 8 months; Fairfield and Warren, 25 months; commanding schr. Spark, guarding live oak, 12 months	3	0
R. A. Jones	Brandywine	3	2
T. J. Leib	Schooners Shark and Boxer (now in latter)	1	7
W. G. Woolsey	Peacock and Shark	2	0
W. H. Kennon	Coast of Brazil	2	2
Arthur Lewis 3d March, 1827	Guerriere	3	0
John W. West	Ditto	2	2
T. O. Selfridge	Natchez and Hudson	2	2
R. R. Pinkham	Mediter. and Pacific squadrons (now in latter)	2	6
Henry Eagle	Natchez and Hudson	2	6
A. K. Long	Hudson (just sailed again in Constellation)	2	0
G. J. Van Brunt	Falmouth and Peacock	1	4
H. Pinkney	Hornet and Falmouth	2	5
W. M. Glendy	Sloops Boston and Falmouth (now in latter)	2	1

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
J. H. Little	Pacific and Brazilian squadrons (now in latter)	2	0
G. P. Upshur	Brandywine (now on board)	1	8
S. B. Cocke	Natchez and Vincennes	2	6
G. S. Blake	West India and Mediterranean squadrons (now on survey of Narraganset bay)	1	9
Z. F. Johnston	Sloop Florida and Mediterranean squadron	1	9
W. Green	Mediterranean and West India squadrons (now in latter)	1	11
S. Barron	Lexington and Fairfield (now in latter)	3	4
George Izard	West Indies	0	8
T. G. Benham	Schr. Boxer since Dec. 1831	0	6
R. W. Jones	Schr. Shark	2	11
A. G. Gordon	John Adams and Ontario	1	0
A. G. Slaughter	Delaware and Fairfield	3	3
A. E. Downes	Mediterranean squadron	2	10
Oscar Bullus	None		
S. Humphreys	Pacific squadron	1	8
J. Marshall	Sloop Concord (now on board)	2	2
C. H. Jackson	West Indies	1	0
A. A. Harwood	None, (now under orders to Mediterranean)		
T. McK. Buchanan	West Indies and frigate Hudson, 28 months; schr. Experiment since April 14, 2 months	2	6
T. Bailey, Jr.	West Indies	0	8
J. M. Rinker	Grampus	1	0
H. Y. Purviance	Falmouth and Peacock (now in latter)	3	0
G. Adams 17th May, 1828	Concord (now on board)	2	1
Cad'r Ringgold	Vandalia	3	2
John Graham	Mediterranean squadron	1	7
W. F. Lynch	West Indies	0	10
H. W. Morris	Sloop Florida, on survey, 7 months, and Mediterranean squadron 12 months	1	7
Isaac S. Sterett	Pacific squadron	1	0
F. B. Ellison	West India squadron	1	2
E. B. Boutwell	Pacific squadron, Porpoise and Fairfield (now in latter)	3	2
J. T. Homans	Coast of Brazil and W. Indies (now in latter)	1	9
J. E. Bispham	Mediterranean squadron	2	5
S. Smith Lee	Natchez	0	11
W. C. Whittle	Mediterranean squadron	1	11
J. H. Marshall	Frigate Brandywine (now on board)	2	6
R. H. Morris	West Indies	0	9
T. D. Shaw	Macedonian and schr. Shark (now in latter)	0	10
R. D. Thorburn	Mediter. and West India squadrons (now in latter)	2	8
S. Lockwood	Mediterranean and Coast of Brazil	1	8
Lloyd B. Newell	West Indies	1	11
John Cassin	Guerriere	3	1
H. H. Rhodes	Mediter. and West India squadrons (now in latter)	2	2
W. S. Ogden	Mediterranean squadron (now there)	3	0
E. O. Blanchard	Sloop Warren (now on board)	1	2
H. J. Auchmuty	None, under orders to frigate United States		
J. G. Rodgers	W. Indies and coast of Brazil (now on latter)	1	4
F. A. Neville	Fairfield (now on board)	0	7
J. W. Mooers	Pacific squadron (now there)	1	0
E M. Russell	None, (made several attempts, but was too		

NAMES AND DATE OF PROMOTION.	SEA SERVICE SINCE PROMOTION.	Yrs.	Mos.
	sick to do duty)		
R. R. McMullin	Sloop Warren (now in her)	1	2
C. C. Turner	Mediterranean squadron (now there)	0	8
Joseph Stallings	Sloop Lexington (now on board)	1	0
John Manning	West Indies	0	10
J. L. Lardner	Pacific squadron from date of his commission till June, 1830; but he was not promoted till the spring of 1831, to take rank 17th of May, 1828. He has just reported on board the schr. Experiment	2	0
27th May, 1830			
R. G. Robb	Pacific squadron	1	6
E. M. Vail	John Adams (now on board)	1	1
Fitzallen Deas	Mediter. and West India squadrons (now in latter)	0	10
S. W. Stockton	Sloop Warren (now on board)	1	2
J. Calhoun	Coast of Brazil and W. Indies (now in latter)	0	8
C. W. Chauncey	Pacific squadron (now there)	1	2
Law. Pennington	Mediterranean squadron	1	6
T. T. Craven	Schr. Boxer (now on board)	0	4
A. H. Foot	Pacific squadron	1	6
J. L. Ball	Brandywine (now on board)	1	9
W. W. Hunter	Guerriere	1	4
3d March, 1831			
N. C. Lawrence	Sloop Vandalia	0	9
Amasa Paine	Peacock	0	1
N. W. Duke	West Indies (now there)	0	8
E. G. Tilton	Sloop Florida, on survey	0	4
J. H. Ward	Concord (now on board)	1	3
Henry Hoff	Frigate Potomac (now in her)	1	0
J. Ingersoll	Ditto ditto	1	0
Grey Skipwith	West Indies (now there)	0	8
Murray Mason	Mediterranean squadron (now there)	0	8
C. H. Davis	Ontario, sloop	1	2
S. Johnston	None		
J. W. Swift	Mediterranean squadron (now there)	0	10
Jerome Callan	None		
P. C. Valdes	None		
C. M. Armstrong	Sloop Falmouth (now in her)	1	0
E. Farrand	Commanding schr. Ariel, guarding live oak	1	0
H. H. Bell	Vincennes (now in her)	1	3
Philip A. Stockton	None		
W. Smith	Sloop Boston (now on board)	1	3
12th July, 1831			
C. H. McBlair	Mediterranean (now there)	0	11
30th Dec. 1831			
J. M. Watson	Schr. Experiment, since 24th April, 1832.	1m. 19ds.	

NAVY DEPARTMENT, *June* 13, 1832.

FROM THE LONDON NAUTICAL MAGAZINE, FOR MAY 1832.

HADLEY'S QUADRANT.

The following anonymous letter addressed to the Editor of the *Portsmouth Herald*, and extracted from that excellent paper, will be found interesting to our naval readers.

"DEAR SIR,—Fully convinced that every thing relating to science meets your approbation, and that the historical account of the quadrant (called Hadley's), may not be entirely lost in oblivion, I beg leave to submit, for your consideration and use, the following account of that inestimable instrument.

"Mr. John Hamilton Moore, in the last edition of his Epitome of Navigation, observes, 'that the invention was attributed to Mr. Hadley; but that Mr. Godfrey, a glazier, of Philadelphia, had also claimed that honour,' and he very vaguely decides upon their claims by observing, 'that two persons, in different hemispheres, might hit on the same idea.' This, no doubt, is a plausible way of getting rid of the argument; but what I am now about to relate is an absolute fact, to which I can produce the most satisfactory testimony. Previous to, and after, the American revolutionary war, there was a philosophical club held at the Indian Queen, in Market-street, Philadelphia, composed of the following, viz.—Dr. Franklin, of whom, as he wrote his own life, it is unnecessary to say more; Dr. Rittenhouse, originally a house-carpenter, afterwards a great mathematician; Tench Francis, a merchant, who was so great a lover of fish, that all his children were baptized by piscatory names, such as Tench, Roach, Perch, &c.; Oswell Eve, originally a shipwright, afterwards a master mariner, and a very scientific man; he adhered to the royal cause during the struggle (but his sons took the contrary part), and, after the contest was over, he was rewarded by the Government of Cat Island, one of the Bahamas. I should have mentioned that he had been to the East Indies, as carpenter of an Indiaman, a vast undertaking for a Trans-Atlantic; Godfrey, a glazier, of Philadelphia, a man of intelligence; and five or six more, whose names I have now forgotten.

"Now Mr. Godfrey was putting a pane of glass in a window on the first floor of a house in Philadelphia, when, having a piece of glass in each hand, he saw the double reflection. He immediately left his occupation, and ran through the streets like one deranged, exclaiming, 'I've got it,' 'I've got it.'—He communicated his ideas to Dr. Franklin and Mr. Eve, and with their assistance formed the first instrument (which superseded Davis's *pig yoke)*, now called Hadley's Quadrant. I have, Sir, had the original in my hands many times. Mr. Godfrey, upon finishing his instrument, sent his son with it to

the West Indies, to try its accuracy, where, being in company with some naval officers, he asserted that he had an instrument that would determine the latitude to a greater nicety than any instrument they possessed. Lieutenant Hadley desired to see it, and taking a sketch of it, upon his return to Europe obtained a patent, and it is thence called Hadley's Quadrant.

Yours, &c. NAUTICUS."

FROM THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL, FOR DEC. 1832.

STEAM NAVAL WARFARE.

IT is now very clearly seen, that the whole naval system of this and every other maritime country is about in a few years to be overturned by the superior powers and advantages of steam frigates, steam fortifications, and steam guns; and, therefore, if England would maintain her supremacy on the seas, it is time, by an immediate attention to the new system of naval architecture, to prepare for a very extensive and inevitable change in all our maritime affairs.

To estimate the various advantages of steam shipping is perhaps impossible, whilst no engagement has yet taken place between steam vessels of war; but it is very apparent that engines must now be used to propel all our naval vessels, even to the largest ships of the line. That this will be indispensably necessary, appears from the great disadvantages and dangers which the largest ships, and even whole fleets, must encounter in calm weather, from the attacks of an inferior force of steam frigates. Thus, if a fleet of twenty sail of the line, built upon the present principle, were cruising in the Baltic, the Mediterranean, or any other inland sea, where calms are frequent in the months of summer, a single steam frigate, hovering around and watching for a still time, might approach whilst the fleet is lying immoveable on the water, and take a raking position by means of its own power of locomotion, whilst the enemy is compelled to remain stationary; the steam frigate might thus with impunity, and out of the reach of the fire of its helpless antagonist, sink in succession every vessel of the fleet. Nor will a dead calm be the only time when this destructive advantage will belong to the steam vessel, for a raking position may be maintained in any ordinary weather, though not with the same effect altogether; for, in a still time, from the steadiness and precision of the fire of the steamer, the position of a sailing vessel must be the same as though becalmed under a fortification. Nor will the usual methods of altering the position of a sailing vessel in a calm—by means of sweeps or paddles,—be effectual for bringing her into a

line with the steam frigate, since the latter could alter her position with more celerity by means of steam; and thus, notwithstanding the partial coming round of the enemy, the raking position might be maintained till the sailing vessel should be captured or destroyed. A very clear notion of this species of warfare may be formed from the situation of the ships of war in the Gut of Gibraltar a few years since, where a ninety-eight-gun ship is said to have been almost reduced to strike to a few gun-boats, which in a calm raked her in this manner for hours,—the metal of the ship being unable to bear upon the skipjacks around her. It is, therefore, certain that steam engines alone in all our vessels of war can enable them to meet these advantages, and that the peculiar attention of the Admiralty ought now to be directed to the equipment and trial of steam frigates.

That many very experienced and talented officers of the present naval school are averse to the acknowledgment of the superior powers of steam warfare, is certainly true; nor is it strange that a reluctance should be felt to part with a system in which so much glory has been earned. Thus the remarks of Captain Napier, in the United Service Journal for May, though in many respects judicious and valuable, yet certainly do not exhibit the full consequences of the use of steam in our future naval operations. The gallant Captain informs us, that 'he is not one of those who fancy that our line-of-battle ships will become useless, and that naval warfare will be carried on by steam boats only;' and further he asserts, that 'our ships must be fitted with paddles, which will at once put them into a situation to defend themselves.' Now, in opposition to this opinion of Captain Napier's, I beg to repeat, that paddles will by no means enable a vessel to change her position with celerity sufficient to meet the corresponding movements of the steamer; for the utmost that paddles can do is to move a ship from four to five knots an hour, and as the steamer can move at the rate of ten or twelve—or more than twice as fast,—it becomes apparent that the latter can maintain a raking position in defiance of paddles, sweeps, or tow-boats; and, though an unpleasant truth to be told, it is equally clear that our double bankers must either be fitted with engines, or laid up for ever; since we cannot now enter upon a war with the meanest powers of Colombia or Portugal without steam vessels of war, or the hazard of our navy falling an inglorious prey to a few steam privateers bought from the builders in Baltimore.

That a combination of steam power with the usual equipment and trim of masts and sails is practicable, is apparent from the several very superb steam ships which have crossed the Atlantic Ocean from the United States, and one steam In-

diaman, which, under the command of Captain Johnston, made the passage to Calcutta from the port of London.—That the latter had an unusually long passage is said to be attributed to a mistaken experiment in shaping her course to India. It is remarkable, however, that no second attempt has been made, either by the merchants or the East India Company, for shortening that most tedious and expensive voyage, by means of steam shipping, as there exists no doubt that by avoiding the error of Captain Johnston—so favourable for steam navigation is the whole region of the trade winds—that the passage to the East Indies might be regularly performed in half the usual time. The first steam ship that crossed the Atlantic was the Savannah, from the port of Savannah, in the United States, which arrived at Liverpool in twenty-six days, and proceeding thence to St. Petersburgh, returned to the United States, in the words of Captain Rogers, her commander, "without loss of screw, bolt, or rope-yarn." Another most splendid steam ship, of seven hundred tons burthen, called the Robert Fulton, was built at New York, and plied as a packet between that port and the harbours of Charleston, the Havannah, and New Orleans, performing that long track of navigation with great regularity in about nine days. This fine ship was a model of naval architecture; but being found to be of too expensive a construction, it was sold to the Emperor of Brazil, who took out the engine, thereby depriving himself of an immense advantage in his war with the republic of Buenos Ayres; and the Robert Fulton is now a sailing frigate in the Brazilian service. Indeed the shipbuilders of the United States supply vessels of war not only to the governments of Brazil and the other South American powers, but to the Emperor of Russia, the Sultan, the Pacha of Egypt, and other petty sovereigns, from which it may be worthy to remark, that we ought not to be too supine in our preparations for steam warfare, from a reliance upon our own ingenuity, and the backwardness of other countries in mechanical knowledge, since steam shipping may be purchased by any government from the private builders in the United States; and no unprejudiced person, who has seen the state of things in the harbours of that country, can deny that in every point of naval architecture, vessels may be obtained in the United States equal to any that can be built in England.

The paramount difficulty to the progress of steam navigation consists in the weight and great space required for the coals, furnaces, chimney, and other appurtenances of the land engine; but may it not confidently be anticipated, with all the scientific knowledge of Great Britain alive to this object of national importance, that means will, ere long, be discovered to remedy these disadvantages?

As an improvement upon the present plan of placing paddles at the sides, stern-wheels might be substituted. It is argued by the opponents of steam shipping for the purposes of war, that the dependence upon such complex machinery in a time of engagement will be very precarious, especially as the all-important wheels are exposed at the centre and outside of the vessel, and a single shot lodged in one of the paddle-boxes, these persons invariably say, will send the whole concern to the devil. Certainly the paddle-boxes are in a very exposed situation in the sides, and therefore I propose to introduce the American plan of placing the wheels in the stern of the vessel. This method has for some years been resorted to upon the Mississippi river, in consequence of the immense quantities of drift wood and floating ice which, in the spring of the year, cover the stream, and, by obstructing and breaking the paddles at the sides of the boat, formerly rendered steam navigation almost impracticable. To remedy this deficiency, stern-wheels were invented, which are placed upon each side of the rudder, leaving merely room for its full play, by which contrivance not only the original purpose was obtained of avoiding the floating logs upon the river, but a great increase of propelling power has also been obtained, and all the fastest boats now upon the Mississippi are those with stern-wheels. For it is clear, that the wheels at the sides, being at the centre, are at the widest part of the vessel, and therefore at the utmost distance from each other, thus acting least in concert in that position; whereas at the stern the wheels are placed within a few feet of each other, which produces a greater combination of power; and there are clear mechanical reasons why, with a proper adjustment of the build of the vessel, and the weight of the engine and cargo, the very greatest purchase may be obtained at the stern. It is, however, for the purposes of security, that this method is most worthy of consideration for vessels of war, the wheels being thus removed from the most exposed situation in the centre and outside, to the least open part under the stern, and effectually concealed and secured. Thus, excepting in the rare instance of a vessel in pursuit directly astern, a shot could never be lodged against the wheels; and perhaps they may be covered altogether, and rendered invisible, and by ironwork impenetrable. It is also remarkable that vessels with stern-wheels are less liable to be *swagged*, the term applied to that broken-backed appearance common to steam-boats, from the perpetual pressure upon one part, of the weight of the engine, whilst the removal of the wheels to the stern, near the cabin, always the lighest part of the vessel, produces a more equal distribution of the burthen, and tends to the greater strength and durability of the vessel. Moreover, a vessel, when not under steam, will sail better with the sides

divested of the encumbrance of paddle-boxes; and the operation of unshipping the wheels in a rough sea, may be performed with greater facility at the stern, after the manner of hoisting a boat. It is also worthy of consideration how much this improvement adds to the graceful appearance of the vessel, by removing from the sides those hideous excrescences the paddle-boxes; for it is much to be regretted that an invention the most useful ever conferred upon mankind, should yet be destructive of all symmetry and beauty; and whilst all other vessels, from a canoe to a ninety-eight gun-ship, possess an appearance of grace and grandeur, the modern steam-boat is yet the very ugliest monster that swims the sea, and has been aptly compared to a jackass wading with a couple of hampers. Therefore, every reason of security, celerity, and beauty, tends to the introduction of stern-wheels; and to my very great surprise, in no one instance have I ever seen this fine invention in any of the harbours of England.

In time of peace, and to the commerce of the world, how vast will soon be the results of steam navigation! Its most important benefits will undoubtedly be seen in the eastern world; for the passage to India, China, and New Holland, even by the present circuitous route by the Cape of Good Hope, will probably be shortened to a period of sixty days.—This may be fairly deduced from the performance of his Majesty's steam-packet Firebrand, which in sixty-six days, during the present summer, has traversed a distance of 11,500 miles of sea, in two voyages from Falmouth to Corfu, and one from the same port to Lisbon. This distance of 11,500 miles is almost equal to the passage to the East Indies; and such a performance in the present day, when the adaptation of the hull of the vessel to the steam-engine is immeasurably far from perfect, proves that, in a few years, a period of two months will be the usual passage to the eastern world. H. F.

FROM THE LONDON NAUTICAL MAGAZINE, FOR JUNE, 1832.

ON THE ADVANTAGES POSSESSED BY NAVAL MEN, IN CONTRIBUTING TO GENERAL SCIENCE.

There is, probably, no class of society which has more frequent opportunities of adding to the general stock of scientific knowledge, than that composed of persons in the royal and mercantile navy. Their various avocations necessarily carry them to distant regions, many seldom visited; while they not unfrequently have at their disposal various portions of time, which, added together, become considerable, and which might be most beneficially employed in the advancement of general

science. It would be the greatest injustice, not to acknowledge the large contributions which have already been made to science, by many naval officers; their well-known works sufficiently attest the importance of their observations and discoveries; but, when we regard the multitude of British ships which traverse the ocean, in every direction, these distinguished individuals only constituted a small fraction of those whose opportunities have been quite as great, if not greater, but who have either altogether neglected them, or have not communicated their observations to the world.

The various sciences which bear immediately on navigation, necessarily claim the seaman's first care, and should constitute those to which he more particularly devotes himself. While, however, his principal attention is devoted to these, he may still, when opportunities offer, materially aid the progress of other sciences, more especially those which may be supposed eventually to contribute to the advancement of navigation.—All researches in the composition, temperature, and movements of the sea, come under the latter head; indeed, it may be fairly stated, that a knowledge of the surface currents of the ocean, constitutes an important branch of nautical acquirements.—We may, however, inquire how much is really known on this subject, more particularly when we recollect, that the general mass of information, relating to currents, was accumulated before the local attraction of the ship was known to produce the frequently considerable aberration of the needle, which is now ascertained to be the case. It is scarcely too much to say, that every vessel, destined for distant voyages, should be provided with Mr. Barlow's plate, by which the important errors arising from this cause are avoided. There can be little doubt that many minor currents have been stated to exist solely in consequence of inattention to this local attraction; for, if those on board any given ship consider that they are steering one course, while, in point of fact, they are steering another, there is always considerable danger that the difference in the position of the ship, determined by proper observations, and that obtained from dead reckoning, will be set down to current, when no such current may exist. We may also inquire what is known of under-currents. The notices of under-currents are exceedingly rare, and it is still more rare, that any experiments have been made upon them. Capt. Beaufort's experiment of sinking a line in clear water, with shreds of differently colored bunting at every yard, to ascertain the directions of the under-currents,* seems never to have been repeated.

To quit the subject of currents, which it is not our present object to discuss, we will glance at the state of our knowledge

* Beaufort's Karamania.

respecting the temperature and saltness of the sea. These subjects have already engaged the attention of many naval men; indeed, nearly all our information on this head is derived from them. First, with regard to the temperature of the sea. The surface temperature will naturally, in a great measure, depend on that of the superincumbent atmosphere; so that, if the latter be variable, we should expect the former to be variable also, while it would remain more uniform in climates less exposed to great vicissitudes. Various causes, however, tend to make the temperature of the sea a much more complicated subject than from this view might be anticipated. Thus, every current, moving from a colder to a warmer region, or from one that is warm to a cold latitude, alters the temperature which any waters may be supposed to possess under any warm climate. The gulf-stream is a case in point; the waters become heated within the tropics, and then flow northwards, over and through waters of an inferior temperature. Hence it has been inferred, and with reason, that great advantages would accrue to navigation, from numerous observations on the temperature of this stream, at different parts of its course.* It would also be advantageous to ascertain at what depths this heated water descends, in various northern parts of the gulf-stream; for, as the waters of this stream are, by being heated, rendered specifically lighter than the cold waters over which they flow, it will probably be found that, towards the northern part of their course they will have much less depth, than to the southward. Experiments to ascertain this fact would require considerable care, particularly as the observer would have to contend with the laws which govern the greatest density of water; consequently, such experiments would be best made in the winter months, when the difference between the surface temperature of the sea, and the temperature of the air, would be most marked. Although we possess many notices of the surface temperature of the ocean, in various latitudes and longitudes, the observations hitherto made are far from being sufficiently numerous for the purpose of obtaining any very important or useful results. The surface temperature of the sea is, therefore, a subject which may readily engage the attention of those who constantly traverse the ocean in various directions, more particularly when the necessary experiments are so easy, merely requiring a little care.†

* As a reflow, or counter current, sets down by the Florida Reefs and Keys to the S. W. and W., and consequently brings down colder water from the north, it would be curious to ascertain, in any vessel crossing the two currents, the temperatures of each, where they pass each other, as also the temperature close to the coasts.

† It is exceedingly easy to ascertain the surface temperature of the sea; it merely erequires that a bucket of surface-water should be hauled upon deck, at a given hour or hours of the day, and a *good* thermometer be plunged into it,

The experiments necessary for determining the temperature of the sea, at different depths, can be best made during calms—precisely, therefore, when there is little work to be done on board. It has been found, as might be expected, that, within moderate depths, near the surface, the temperature varies considerably, but that beneath these depths it becomes more uniform. If the ocean were composed of fresh water, we should expect the great depths to be occupied by water of the temperature of between 39° and 40° of Fahrenheit, which, it has been ascertained, is the temperature at which fresh water possesses its greatest density; all water, above or beneath that temperature, rising above it. The case, however, is altered with respect to the water of the sea, which forms a solution of certain salts. We have, therefore, to seek what the greatest density of sea-water may be, or, in other words, the temperature of the sea at great depths, as the heaviest water will necessarily descend to the bottom. As yet, no very satisfactory results have been obtained on this head, but it would appear that the temperature of the heaviest sea-water is certainly not less than that of fresh water, but probably a few degrees below it. It is, therefore, an interesting object of enquiry, and the point can be only satisfactorily determined by numerous experiments.—M. Lenz, who accompanied Kotzebue's expedition, inferred, from his various experiments in temperate and warm latitudes, that the decrease of temperature is at first rapid, then gradually decreases, and finally becomes insensible; that the point where the decrease becomes insensible, appears to rise with the latitude. He considered that the latter point is at the depth of from 200 and 300 fathoms between the parallels of 41° and 31° N. while at 21° N. it is near 400 fathoms.

The greatest depth at which the temperature of the ocean has been taken, is 1300 fathoms, in lat. 3° 20′ S. and 7° 39′ E. In this experiment, Captain Wauchope found a temperature of 42° Fahrenheit, the surface-water being at 73°. The same observer obtained a temperature of 51° at 966 fathoms, in lat. 10° N. and long. 25° W., the surface-water being at 80°.—Captain Sabine found in lat. 20° 30′ N. and long. 83° 30′ W., a temperature of 45°1-2 at 1000 fathoms, the surface-water being at 83°. M. Lenz, obtained 36°1-2 at 974 fathoms, in lat.

taking care that the thermometer be not exposed to the rays of the sun, or so close to the sides of the bucket, as to take its temperature, which may be different from that of the water. Let these observations be duly entered in a book kept for the purpose, together with another observation, made with the *same* thermometer in the shade, on deck, and immediately *before* it was plunged into the bucket; and at the end of the voyage a valuable series of observations, on the surface temperature of the sea, in certain latitudes and longitudes, and of the temperature of the air at the same time, will have been collected. It may be necessary, perhaps, to caution some of our readers against many of the thermometers sold at the outports, as they are frequently very imperfect instruments.

21° 14′ N. and long. 196° 1′ W., the surface-water being 79°1-2. The latter experiment gave a lower temperature for deep sea-water than had before been obtained in the tropics, or in the temperate zones; and should these and some other experiments to the same effect, be confirmed by other observers, it would prove that the greatest density of sea-water is at least below 37° Fahrenheit.*

We are indebted to Capts. Parry, Franklin, Beechey, Scoresby and Ross, for many experiments at different depths, in cold northern regions; whence we might infer, that the greatest density of sea-water, in those latitudes, was somewhere about 37° or 38°, omitting the observations of Capt. Ross, which would seem to point to a lower temperature for the maximum density. Much would, undoubtedly, depend upon the saltness of the sea at the various situations, but as it is considered that this does not vary very materially on the ocean, generally, we require further experiments, which, when combined with those already made, will enable us the better to form an opinion on this subject.

From the experiments of M. M. D'Urville and Berard, it would appear, that the temperature of the Mediterranean, at great depths, is not by any means so low as that of the Atlantic ocean. The latter found a temperature of 55°1-2 at the depth of 1200 fathoms, (no bottom,) between the Balearic Isles and the coast of Algiers; three other experiments in deep water gave the same results. From these observations, and others of his own, M. d'Urville considers that all the western part of the Mediterranean, beneath a depth of 200 fathoms, rests uniformily at a temperature of about 55° Fahr.

The saltness of the sea has engaged the attention of several philosophers. Dr. Marcel, who instituted a long series of experiments on this subject, and who was ably assisted by naval men, concluded:

1. That the southern ocean contains more salt than the northern ocean, in the ratio of 1·02919 to 1·02757.

2. That the mean specific gravity of sea-water, near the equator, is 1·02777, intermediate between that of the northern and southern hemispheres.

* The instrument employed by M. Lenz was a large hollow cylinder, closed at both ends by valves which opened upwards. To one of the valves a thermometer was attached, enveloped by a substance which conducted heat with great difficulty, so that it could scarcely lose the temperature which it had acquired below, more particularly being surrounded by a body of water drawn up from thence. The more common method has been to sink a register thermometer, with a metallic case and graduation, (metals speedily acquiring the temperature of the surrounding medium,) and marking the change of temperature which had taken place. Thus, if the index marking the maximum had not been moved forwards, while the minimum index had been driven back, it was considered that the temperature had diminished to the point marked by the latter index. These instruments are far from expensive; but, as it is essential to have them exact, they should always be obtained from well-known makers.

3. That there is no notable difference in sea-water under different meridians.

4. That there is no satisfactory evidence that the sea, at great depths, is more salt than at the surface.

5. That the sea, in general, contains more salt where it is deepest, and most remote from land; and that its saltness is always diminished in the vicinity of large masses of ice.

6. That small inland seas, though communicating with the ocean, are much less salt than the ocean.

7. That the Mediterranean contains rather larger proportions of salt than the ocean.*

M. Lenz inferred, from his personal observation, made in different parts of the ocean:

1. That the Atlantic Ocean is salter than the South Sea; and that the Indian Ocean, being the transition from the one to the other, is salter towards the Atlantic on the west, than towards the South Sea on the east.

2. In each of these great oceans, there exists a maximum of saltness towards the north, and another towards the south.—The first is further from the equator than the second. The minimum between these points, is a few degrees south of the equator, in the Atlantic, and probably also in the Pacific, though the author's observations did not extend sufficiently low in that ocean.

3. In the Atlantic, the western portion is more salt than the eastern. In the Pacific, the saltness does not appear to alter with the longitude.

4. In going north from the northern maximum of greatest saltness, the specific gravity diminishes constantly as the latitude increases.

The same author considers, that, from the equator 45° N. the water of the sea, to the depth of 1000 fathoms, possesses the same degree of saltness.

To determine the saltness of the sea with accuracy, cannot be expected from naval men generally, but they can easily aid the investigation, by merely filling well-cleaned bottles with surface-water, taken up in particular latitudes and longitudes, (taking care to cork them immediately,) and if provided with proper instruments, which are far from expensive, with water taken from various depths. Indeed, many an otherwise idle half hour might be well spent in collecting information on the temperature and saltness of the sea; the little trouble it would take being abundantly repaid in the increased interest taken in the voyage, besides the gratification afforded to the observer, in considering that he is contributing to the advancement of general knowledge.

* According to the same author, 500 grains of sea-water, taken from the middle of the North Atlantic, contained common salt (muriate of soda) 13·3, sulphate of soda 2·33, muriate of lime 0·995, and muriate of magnesia 4·955.

SHIPS NEPTUNE AND PENNSYLVANIA.

A late English paper gives the following as the dimensions of the ship of war Neptune, just launched in Portsmouth; she is represented as being the largest British vessel that has ever floated.

	FEET.	INCHES.
Length on lower deck, - - - - - -	205	8
do of keel, - - - - - - - - -	190	6
do of keel for tonnage, - - - -	170	$5\frac{3}{4}$
Breadth for do. - - - - - - - -	54	$7\frac{1}{2}$
do moulded, - - - - - - - -	53	$10\frac{1}{2}$
do outside of wale, - - - - - -	35	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Depth in hold, - - - - - - - -	33	3
Burthen in tons, 2,505 70-95ths.		
Extreme length aloft, - - - - - -	242	6
do height, forward, - - - - -	56	6
do do midships, - - - - -	51	0
do do abaft, - - - - - -	11	0

Dimensions of U. S. ship of the line *Pennsylvania*, now on the stocks at the Navy Yard in Philadelphia.

Length 220 feet—Beam 58 feet—Beams on each deck 34—Decks, 5 entire.

On the spar deck she has - - 44 ports.
Upper gun deck - - 44
Second do - - - 42
Lower do - - - 32—162
Deduct for stern and bridal ports, 22
She can mount - - - 140 guns.

6 feet high between each deck—20 inches thick through the sides—26 inches at the bows—Deck plank 5 inches thick.

Estimate of the quantity of sail duck required for the making one complete suit of sails, &c. for the U. S. ship Pennsylvania, by C. Ware, late sail-maker in the U. S. Navy.

Number of yards for one set of sails, - - 18,341 yds.
Bags, hammocks, boat sails, awnings, &c.–14,624—32,965

Size of shrouds - - - - - - - - -	11	inches.
Main stay - - - - - - - - - - -	19	do
Main mast from step to fly pole - - -	178	feet.
Main yard - - - - - - - - - - -	110	do
Topsail yard - - - - - - - - - -	82	do
Topgallant yard - - - - - - - - -	52	do
Royal yard - - - - - - - - - -	56	do
Sheet Anchor - - - - - - - - -	10,000	lbs.
Sheet cable - - - - - - - - -	25	inches.
Main top sail contains, - - - - -	1531	yds.

THE FASTNET ROCK,—South Coast of Ireland.

The following is a copy of a report from Lieut. Howe, commanding H. M. brig Onyx, to Vice-Admiral Sir Pulteney Malcolm, K.C.B., on the Fastnet, and other rocks in its vicinity.

H. M. Brig Onyx, off Cape Clear, Aug. 30, 1832.

Sir: It has continued to blow so hard, and so heavy, that I have been prevented from executing your orders to ascertain the position of the rock outlaying from the Fastnet, until to-day; but which I have now done, and find it to be twelve hundred and eighty-six feet, or a little less than a quarter of a mile, from the highest pinnacle of the Fastnet; from which is to be deducted that part of the base of the Fastnet which projects towards the shoal, and which I measured, and found to be one hundred and forty feet, leaving eleven hundred and forty-six feet, or rather less than two cables' lengths, between the extreme N. E. point of the Fastnet and the shoal.

I came to a grapnel in a boat on the shoalest part of the rock that I could find, at low water to-day, in exactly twelve feet water. From this spot I found the altitude of the Fastnet with my sextant to be 4 deg. 34 min. 40 sec. (no index error.) I then went on the top of it, and with a lead-line measured its perpendicular height, from the surface of the water, which is one hundred and three feet at low water; and from the spot where the lead lay, I measured the base, (which points directly towards the shoal,) and found it as before stated. With these materials, I have been able to ascertain the position of the shoal with great accuracy; it bears from the Fastnet N. E. by E. one thousand one hundred and forty-six feet.

The surface of the shoal is not more than thirty feet over; the lead fell into 5 1-2 fathoms close to its eastern boundary, and the water deepened to ten, twelve, and fourteen fathoms, at a cable's length; on its south-westerly side the lead fell at once into 9 and a half fathoms, and deepened very irregularly to sixteen fathoms, which I found close to Fastnet

No ship well conducted would go so near to the Fastnet, as this shoal lies, from choice; and should one be compelled to do so, there is a good channel between them. A shoal extends from the Fastnet Rock in a south-westerly direction, about half the distance this rock lies, but no seaman would venture so close to it.

The N. W. and S. E. sides of the Fastnet are bold to, with from ten to twelve and fourteen fathoms close to them.

I have the honor to be, Sir, Yourobedient servant,

ALEX. B. HOWE,
Lieut. R. N. Commanding.

Vice-Admiral Sir P. Malcolm, K. C. B. &c.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

Some of the most important changes in the Navy Register, as ascertained at the Department, during the month of January, 1833.

Vessels belonging to each Foreign Station.

MEDITERRANEAN.—Frigates—United States, Brandywine, and Constellation. Sloop John Adams.

WEST INDIES.—Sloops—Vandalia, and St. Louis.

Schooners—Grampus, Shakr, and Porpoise.

COAST OF BRAZIL.—Sloops—Warren, Lexington, and Peacock. Schooners—Enterprise, and Boxer.

PACIFIC.—Frigate Potomac, Sloop Falmouth, and Schooner Dolphin.

NOTICES.

Frigate United States, Captain Nicolson, arrived at Messina, 22d, and under way leaving it on the 29th of October.

Frigate Constellation, Captain Read, near the Coast of Greece from Smyrna to Mahon, 22d of November, 1832.

Sloop Vandalia, Commodore Henley, and Sloop St. Louis, Captain Newton, still at Pensacoln the 6th of January, to sail next day for Cuba. Reached Havana, and there on the 16th. St. Louis left there on the 20th and was at Key West the 24th.

Sloop Warren, Captain Cooper, was still at Rio the 15th of December.

Schooner Enterprise, Lt. Commanding Downing, still at Pernambuco, the 7th of December, to sail for Rio the 19th.

Frigate Potomac, Commodore Downes, was in latitude 36, 39 S. and longitude 85 W. on the 19th October last—arrived at Valparaiso the 23d, and there the 26th October—all well.

Sloop Falmouth, Captain Gregory, sailed from Callao the 11th and touched at Payta, the 15th September—there the 17th, but to depart in a few hours for Guayaquil—all in very good health—at Guayaquil 23d October.

Schooner Dolphin, Lt. Commanding Long, at Valparaiso the latter part of August; and at Callao 23d October—all well.

Sloop Natchez, Captain Zantzinger, sailed from Norfolk the 4th January, and arrived at Charleston, S. C. the 17th—there the 27th.

Schr Experiment, Lt. Commanding Mervine, sailed as the above, and arrived at the same place the 18th of January—still there 27th.

Schooner Grampus arrived at Havana 10th of January, 5 days from Vera Cruz—sailed from there 20th—touched at Key West, and left there 24th, and arrived at Norfolk the 3d February. NAVY DEPARTMENT, *February* 5, 1833.

The following additional items have been collected since the official publication from the Department.

The United States schooner *Shark* was off Tampico on the 11th January.

The United States schooner *Porpoise*, in pursuit of the piratical vessel which plundered the Mexican, sailed from Fayal about 7th December, having put in with loss of foretopmast.

The U. S. steamer *Franklin*, Lieut. BOYLE, from Norfolk for Charleston, put into Ocracock, having received some injury to her rudder, sailed again, and arrived at Charleston, on the 5th February.

The United States ships Brandywine, John Adams and U. States, sailed from Malta 17th November for Tripoli—officers and crew all well.

THE FRIGATE BRANDYWINE,—The Navy Department has ordered the Brandywine, when she returns from her foreign station, to go to Philadelphia to be discharged.

The sloop *Natchez* and schr. *Experiment* were still at Charleston, on the 14th February.

The schooner Grampus at Norfolk.

The U. S. sloop *Lexington*, Captain McKeever, was left at Buenos Ayres on the 15th December, to sail in two days for Montevideo.

The United States ships *Vandalia*, Captain BUDD, and *St. Louis*, Captain NEWTON, were at Havana, 27th January.

Letters have been received at the Navy Department, stating that the sloop of war *Peacock*, Captain Geisinger, having visited the West coast of Sumatra, was at Batavia—all well—September 28th, 1832.

General JOHN E. WOOL, Inspector-General of the Army of the United States, has arrived at New York, returning from a tour on the continent of Europe.

NAVY DEPARTMENT.

United States' Schooner Porpoise,
At Sea, Lat. 8° 46 *N. Long.* 14° 57 *W.*
January 12th, 1833.

SIR—I have the honor to inform you that this vessel has proceeded thus far on her way to the Coast of Africa. We are now contending against very light winds and calms, but I hope in two or three days more to be off the Gallinas. Should I hear nothing of the Pirate on my arrival there, I shall touch at Mesurado, and thence proceed with all despatch to join the West India Squadron, via Cuba.

My crew are generally healthy; but two on the sick report to-day.

I addressed you from Port Praya, Island of St. Jago, giving you a detailed account of the movement of the Porpoise since she left Fayal. I have the honor be, very respectfully, Your obedient servant, JAMES McINTOSH,
Lt. Commanding.

To Hon. LEVI WOODBURY, *Secretary U. S. Navy,*
Washington, D. C.

MEDICAL STAFF OF THE ARMY.

WAR DEPARTMENT, July 6, 1832.

"No person will be hereafter permanently appointed or promoted in the Medical Staff of the Army, until he has passed an examination before a proper Board, and received a favorable report therefrom. A Medical Board, to consist of three Surgeons, or Assistant Surgeons, will be detailed from time to time, by the orders of the War Department, who will examine the qualifications of all persons authorized to present themselves for that purpose, and will report to the Surgeon General their opinion thereupon. In the execution of this duty, the Board will rigidly scrutinize the pretensions of each candidate, and report favorably upon no case admitting of a reasonable doubt. The health and lives of the officers and soldiers are too important objects to be committed to ignorant or incompetent hands.

"No allowance will be made for the expenses of persons undergoing these examinations, as they are considered indispensable prerequisites to appointment LEWIS CASS."

By order of Major General MACOMB,
R. JONES, Adjt. Gen.

ORGANIZATION OF THE ARMY.

	General Staff.	Medical Staff.	Pay Department.	Purchasing Department.	Corps of Engineers.	Topographical Engineers.	Ordnance Department.	4 Regiments of Artillery.	7 Regiments of Infantry.	Battalion of mounted Rangers.	Grand Aggregate.
Major General	1										1
Brigadier Generals	2										2
Adjutant General	1										1
Inspector Generals	2										2
Quartermaster General	1										1
Quartermasters	4										4
Commis. Gen. of Subsistence	1										1
Commissaries	2										2
Surgeon General		1									1
Surgeons		12									12
Assistant Surgeons		55									55
Paymaster General			1								1
Paymasters			14								14
Commis. Gen. of Purchases				1							1
Military Storekeepers				2							2
Colonels					1		1	4	7		13
Lieutenant Colonels					1		1	4	7		13
Majors					2	6	2	4	7	1	22
Captains					6	4	10	36	70	6	132
First Lieutenants					6			72	70	6	154
Second Lieutenants					6			72	70	6	154
Third Lieutenants										6	6
Sergeant Majors								4	7		11
Quartermaster Sergeants								4	7		11
Sergeants							44	144	210	30	428
Corporals								144	280	30	454
Principal Musicians									14		14
Musicians								72	140		212
Artificers								108			170
Enlisted men for Ordnance							250				250
Privates								1512	2940	600	5052
Total commissioned	14	68	15	3	22	10	14	192	231	25	594
Total non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificers and privates,							294	1988	3598	660	6540
Aggregate	14	68	15	3	22	10	308	2180	3829	685	7134

General Intelligence.

The whole number of militia in the United States, according to the latest returns, is 1,308,047; of whom, 188-615 are in the state of New York.

NEW PERCUSSION GUN.—At the Royal Institution, last week, Mr. Farraday produced a new fowling piece possessing a curious principle of percussion. This gun is the invention of Mr. Wilkinson, conjointly with Mr. Moser, who has obtained a patent for it. The principle consists in the introduction of the priming into the barrel, and firing it in that situation at the *top* of the powder. The priming being fixed in the wadding or shot cartridge, is struck by a fine steel pin, which passes through a sheath or tube, surrounded by the gunpowder; and the advantages are, that no operation of priming is required, that being done in the act of loading; there is no flash or smoke, it is perfectly water proof, and not liable to miss fire; and the whole charge of powder must be ignited, in consequence of being fired from the top, and exactly in the centre.—*London Mechanic's Magazine.*

The London Athenæum of the 12th January contains an account of an institution lately opened in that city, under the title of "Gallery of Practical Science," and of models of various inventions by our ingenious countryman, Mr. Perkins.

Among the exhibitions are the following:—

A permanent magnet by Saxton, from which an electro-magnetic spark is elicited; a temporary magnet by Marsh, which, when charged by a small voltaic battery, is capable of sustaining a weight of above six hundred pounds; models of improved anchors, and other nautical instruments, by Mr. Perring, Lieutenant William Rodger, R. N., and others; —a plan to explain Mr. Ralph Watson's plan for preventing the foundering of vessels;—a machine for the compression of water with a force equal to a pressure of 30,000 pounds to the square inch,—and various miscellaneous articles, which it is not possible for us even to mention.

MARRIAGES.

In Baltimore, Lieutenant JOHN S. NICHOLAS, U. S. Navy, to ESTHER S. daughter of the late GEORGE. P. STEVENSON.

In Annapolis, Md. Lieut. EDWARD G. TILTON, U. S. Navy, to JOSEPHINE, daughter of H. H. HARWOOD, Esq.

At Hampton, near Genesee, N. Y. on the 10th of Jan. Lieut. JONATHAN W. SWIFT, U. S. Navy, to Miss ISABELLA, daughter of Col. WM. FITZHUGH, of that place.

In Washington, D. C. on the 5th Feb. ROBERT FITZHUGH, U. S. Navy, to MARIA, daughter of DANIEL CARROLL, Esq. of Duddington.

In Pensacola, Florida, on the 10th Jan. Dr. ISAAC HULSE, Surgeon, U. S. Naval Hospital on that station, to Miss MELANIA, daughter of JOHN INNERARITY, Esq. of Pensacola.

In Baltimore on the 5th Feb. Lieut. D. S. MILLS, 7th Reg. U. S. Infantry, to Miss SARAH ANN BRISCOE, of Baltimore.

In Philadelphia on the 19th Feb'ry FRANCIS G. M'CAULEY, Purser U. S Navy, to MARIA, daughter of JOSEPH TAGERT, Esq. of that city.

DEATHS.

At Port Mahon, JAMES EVANS, Boatswain U. S. Navy.

At Fort M'Henry, near Baltimore, on the 4th Feb. Captain W. G. DANA, of the 1st Regt. of Artillery.—Captain Dana entered the army in 1814, from the Military Academy, since which time he has been constantly on duty, which he has performed with promptness and devotion to the service.

At Hagerstown, Md. on the 11th Febry' Lieut. WILLIAM POTTENGER, U. S. Navy, aged 39.

In New York, on the 4th Nov. 1832, Mid. WILLIAM F. IRVING, U. S. Navy.

RESIGNATIONS.

Accepted since the Naval Register for 1833 was issued.

Mid.	Geo. Lansing,	27 Oct. 1832
"	Wm. Russell,	13 Dec. "
"	Edwd. H. Perkins,	2 Jan. 1833
"	Ben. D. Moore,	" " "
Gunner	John Martin,	18 Dec. 1832
Carpenter	James Jones,	12 Oct. "

MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

VOL. I.---NO. 2.---APRIL, 1833.

MILITIA OF THE UNITED STATES.

In November, 1826, the Secretary of War convened a Board of Officers, composed partly of Army and partly of Militia officers, of which Gen WINFIELD SCOTT, of the Army, was President, to take into consideration the state of the Militia in the United States, to report the defects (if any) of the existing organization, and to recommend such remedies as in its judgment will render the Militia as skilful and effective as it is brave and patriotic.

A circular letter had been previously addressed to Governors of States, Militia officers, and other distinguished citizens, soliciting their views and opinions upon the subject. Their several replies were laid before the Board, examined and considered, and the Board made a report thereon.—The whole was transmitted to Congress and forms Document No. 2 of the House of Representatives, of the 1st session of the 19th Congress.

The great importance always attached to our Militia system, as a means of defence in war, induces us to publish the report of the Board.

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF OFFICERS RELATIVE TO THE MILITIA.

WASHINGTON, *November* 28, 1826.

To the Hon. JAMES BARBOUR, *Secretary of War:*

The Board of officers now convened at this place, have had under consideration your instructions of the 5th ult. requiring a report on the organization of the Militia—"stating the defects (if any) of the existing organization, and recommending such remedies as in its judgment will render our militia as skilful and effective, as it is brave and patriotic."

To enable the Board to execute this important commission, with a reasonable hope of beneficial results, it has carefully read and considered the numerous communications from Governors of States, militia officers, and other distinguished citizens, in reply to your circular letter of July 11, 1826:—also, the several plans of organization and instruction for the militia, which have been submitted to Congress, at different periods, by Committees of that body, and by the War Department.

Premising that, after full consideration of the whole subject, the opinions of the members of the Board have been brought into great harmony with each other, the following Report is now most respectfully submitted:

1. "*Defects of the Existing Organization.*"

The term *organization* will not here be taken in its restricted, or technical sense, but as enlarged by the general tenor and purpose of the circular letter before mentioned.

The primary defect of the militia system, at this time, it is believed, will be found in the excess in numbers, which the law proposes to hold to service; an objection that did not apply to the period of 1792, the date of the still existing law on this subject. In 1792, it might well have been supposed necessary to enrol, and organize into the corps of militia, all the able-bodied white male citizens of the United States, (certain classes and persons excepted) between the ages of 18 and 45 years; but in the thirty-four years which have since elapsed, our general population, and consequently the male citizens between those ages, have been trebled, whilst it is believed, the dangers of foreign aggression are now much diminished. The other occasions under the Constitution, viz: resistance to the laws, and insurrections, to meet which, the militia were also intended, are supposed not more likely to occur in future than might have been apprehended in 1792; and yet, at that period, a third of the present militia force, (and about three-fourths of the male citizens then capable of bearing arms,) was supposed amply sufficient for all the purposes within the contemplation of the Constitution.

It would seem, therefore, from the foregoing views, that the United States now hold to a nominal service, a growing militia force, already considerably larger than any probable, it may almost be said, possible, emergency would require.

But its nominal character is not the only objection to this extensive scheme of enrolment and organization. It is true, that the militia costs the *Treasury*, in time of peace, nothing beyond the inadequate sum annually appropriated for the supply of arms and equipments: yet the musters and trainings, the arms and ammunition, and equipments, which many of the mili-

tia actually purchase, and all are required to provide for themselves, if not supplied by the United States, or the respective States, operate as heavy burdens on the most productive class of the community, without the acquisition, except in the cities, and a few other highly peopled districts, of any adequate degree of military instruction or efficiency. By far the greater number of letters submitted to the Board, and the exceptions come principally from the cities, and the more populous parts of the country, represent the ordinary militia musters, &c. as useless, or worse than useless; as so many occasions for hurtful practices, instead of martial exercises, and the images of war.

The same difficulty (of excess in numbers) renders every scheme of improvement in the general mass, without the aid of a high war excitement, hopeless: for it is obvious, that so great a body of enrolled men, or officers without the men, would not bear, in time of peace, and without remuneration, an encampment of many successive days for instruction; and, on the other hand, it is supposed that the Government would be unwilling to incur the necessary expenditure.—Neither is it deemed advisable, under the present organization, to recommend a selection of particular companies, battalions, regiments, brigades, or divisions, or a particular number of officers, out of the general mass, for better instructions, either at their own expense, or that of the Government. Such selections could not fail to be generally regarded as invidious and unjust. And yet, without an encampment of many successive days for the militia of the thinly peopled districts, it is supposed impossible to impart to the officers, and through them to the ranks, any adequate degree of military efficiency.

But one other objection, of the same character, to the existing organization, will be stated by the Board.

An amendment to the Constitution of the United States, consecrates the great principles—"that a well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the People to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed; and in the same spirit, Congress has at different times provided, that every citizen so enrolled, [for service in the militia] shall, within six months thereafter, provide himself with a good musket or firelock," or, "with a good rifle" &c. (Act May 8, 1792, Sec. 1.) 2. That certain deposites of arms should be made "at suitable places, for the purpose of being sold to the Governments of the respective States, or the militia thereof." (Act July 6, 1798, Sec 1.) And, 3. "That the annual sum of 200,000 dollars be appropriated for the purpose of providing arms and military equipments for the whole body of the militia of the United States." (Act April 23, 1808, Sec. 1)

Yet, notwithstanding the declaration of the Constitution

and the provisions of Congress, conceived in the same spirit, and, notwithstanding the meritorious provisions made by several of the State Governments, to effect the same great object, comparatively but a small portion of the militia of the Union is yet armed; and according to the present rate of appropriation by Congress, for that purpose, it would require, even supposing the population to be stationary, about seventy-five years more to accomplish a measure so congenial to the whole theory of our institutions. This consideration, also, seems to require a new scheme of enrolment and organization, by which the whole body of the militia, held to service, might be effectively armed and instructed.

In respect to instruction, another material defect may be noticed. Systems of a convenient size and form, for the instruction of cavalry, artillery, and infantry, each bearing the express sanction of the Government, are much wanted by the militia. Such systems are now in preparation by this Board, under the orders of the Department; but, should they be ultimately adopted, a great want of uniformity would still exist in the exercises of the same arm; the infantry, for example, if provision be not made by the Government, for the employment, at least in the first instance, of experienced instructers at the requisition of the States. This point, which is deemed of great importance by the Board, will again be noticed under the head of Camps of Instruction.

Under the act of Congress, May 8, 1792, "for establishing a uniform militia throughout the United States," section 2d, it appears, by the correspondence before the Board, that exemptions from militia service, granted by many States, are so numerous as to operate very injuriously on the whole establishment. In some instances, the number of exemptions is reported to be equal to the number of enrolled men. Not again to recur to this supposed defect in the act of 1792, the Board will here observe, that it would greatly promote uniformity in the distribution of the benefits and burdens of a well regulated militia, among the respective States, if no exemptions were allowed beyond the cases which might be enumerated in some new provision made by Congress on this head; and, with a view to such enumeration, the Board would most respectfully suggest, that persons belonging to religious communities or societies, known to entertain conscientious objections to the bearing of arms, might be included, or, at least, exempted from service, in time of peace.

2. "*Remedies.*"

The recommendations of the Board, under this head, will be found in the subjoined *Plan for the enrolment and organiza-*

tion of the militia of the United States, and the subordinate plan for *camps of instruction*. These, for the most part, sufficiently give the views and opinions of the Board on the whole subject submitted by the Department. A few illustrations and miscellaneous remarks may, however, be proper in this place.

The full age of twenty-one years has been assumed by the Board, as the best period for the commencement of service in the ranks of the militia; because it was thought unnecessary, in time of peace, for the Government to interfere with the ordinary control of parents, guardians, and masters, over minors.

It will be perceived that the scheme of enrolment proposed, rendered any other limitation, as to age, than that just stated, unnecessary; it being probable that the minimum quota would be obtained in any State, without going higher than the ages of 30, or 29, and in some of the States not higher than 26 or 25, even with the present population. Between the minimum and maximum numbers of the scheme, the difference is nearly fifty per centum on the former. This difference, it was thought advisable by the Board to leave to each State to add, by further enrolments, in the ascending scale of age, or not, according to its wishes, or according to physical and moral circumstances, in its own condition: although, in the opinion of the Board, a well regulated, armed, and instructed militia, of 400,000 men, for the whole Union, would be sufficient for all the purposes stated in the Constitution.

The residue of the male citizens, capable of bearing arms, (and 7 in every 9, between the ages of 16 and 60, may be so considered) the Board would think it unnecessary to arrange even into nominal brigades, regiments, &c. In any great national emergency, it would be easy for Congress to double or quadruple the number of brigades, &c. in the respective States, on the principles of the scheme, and thus to avail itself of the whole, or any intermediate part of the military population of the Union, according to the emergency. If the plan of instruction submitted herein be adopted, there would, after a few years, be no want of capable officers for the largest force mentioned.

The Board, in the plan of organization, proposes an Adjutant General, without rank, for the whole militia of the United States. The importance of such an officer, attached to the War Department, it is believed, could not be too highly estimated. Among his various duties might be the following: to correspond with the Adjutant Generals of the respective States, on the subject of the militia in general; to furnish blank forms of the different returns required from the States, with the necessary explanations; to make abstracts of all returns received, for the information of the President, and of Congress; to ascertain, by correspondence, the boundaries of

divisions, brigades, and regiments, in the respective States, with a view to the force that might be brought to the defence of exposed points in a given time, &c. &c.

The Act of Congress, May 8, 1792, has provided for an Adjutant General in each State; but has not prescribed the rank of this officer. Hence, in many of the States, the rank given is that of Brigadier General; in others, that of Colonel, and in many States, no rank whatever. A uniformity on this point appearing to the Board desirable, the plan of organization submitted proposes to give to the Adjutant General of each State, the rank of Brigadier General.

Under the existing organization, every regiment consists of two battalions; but no staff is provided for the battalions.—The proposed plan would render each battalion as complete within itself as the united regiment. This was thought desirable by the Board, as, in the thinly peopled districts, battalions would, it is supposed, under the State laws, very generally parade, and perform their exercises separately; and might, also, in many cases, be called into temporary service in the same manner; and, to accommodate the organization to the general state of our population, it is proposed that four companies shall constitute a battalion. The precincts of the battalions would thus be less remote from their respective centres, than if the number of companies were five, as at present.

Should the systems of instruction in preparation for the different arms of militia, cavalry, artillery, and infantry, (and under the latter denomination are included light infantry and riflemen,) be adopted by the proper authority, the Board beg leave to recommend, that the whole be distributed to the militia officers at the expense of the United States, as follows: one copy of each system to every General Officer and General Staff Officer, and a copy of each system, according to the arm of the respective officers, to all other militia officers, chaplains, surgeons, and assistant surgeons, excepted.

The camps of instruction, it will be observed, are recommended by the Board of Officers exclusively. Considerations of public economy, chiefly, induced this limitation. The benefits of the system of instruction, by means of camps, would not, however, be confined in their effects to the officers. The tactical experience acquired by them in the school of the camps, would be naturally imparted to the ranks at such trainings or musters as the States may respectively prescribe; and, in case of active service, the officers would be enabled, in a reasonable time, to render their corps equal to all the emergencies of a campaign. The maxim, that *good officers make good soldiers*, has the support of universal experience, and on this the Board has founded the recommendation above.

In respect to the camps of instruction, it may be observed

that another great advantage would result from the proposed manner of furnishing instructers; as the latter might be required, in the details of a bill, to certify to the time of actual attendance, at the several camps, of each officer, to whom it is proposed to give a per diem allowance and mileage. The certificates of the instructers, so employed, countersigned by the commanders of the camps, respectively, would furnish sufficient vouchers on which the payments by the United States might be made.

The 12th and 13th questions of the Circular Letter have elicited a very general and decided expression of opinion, in the replies, against tours of militia service of three months only. The majority of these letters recommend extending the period to a year, and in this the Board concurs.

Finally, the Board will remark, that many details have been intentionally omitted in the subjoined plans; because it was supposed in a report of this character, outlines and such details only were required, as might serve to develope the *principles* of an entire scheme. The details omitted readily suggest themselves, and might easily be brought into a bill.

Plan for the enrolment and organization of the Militia of the United States.

1. It is recommended that there be appointed one *Adjutant General for the Militia of the United States,* to be attached to the War Department, but without rank.

2. That there be appointed, in each State, an Adjutant General of the Militia of the State, and one Quartermaster General of the Militia of the State; or, in time of peace, one officer, to be both Adjutant and Quartermaster General: such officer, or officers, to have, each, the rank of Brigadier General.

3. It is recommended to exempt all persons, under the age of twenty-one years, in the several States, from service in the Militia of the United States.

4. It is recommended that there be enrolled and organized, in each State from the whole mass of able bodied white male citizens, resident therein, who are, or shall be, above the age of twenty-one years, and always taking the youngest above that age, at the rate of one brigade of Militia, organized as herein proposed, for every member of the House of Representatives of the United States, to which the State may be entitled.

5. It is proposed that every two brigades of Militia, so enrolled, in the same State, shall constitute one division; and if there be an odd brigade in the State, above a division, that such

brigade be attached to some convenient division, at the discretion of the State; that every brigade shall consist of three regiments; every regiment of two battalions; every battalion of four troops, or companies; and every troop, or company, of five sergeants, five corporals, two musicians, and sixty-four privates. Each State to have the right to designate regiments, battalions, troops, and companies, as Cavalry, Artillery, Light Infantry, Infantry, and Riflemen, at its discretion; or, to accept as part of its quota as above, without regard to the limitation as to the age of twenty-one years, uniformed volunteer corps of either arm, if armed and equipped according to designation, and organized as herein proposed.

6. It is proposed that each State, also, have the right to extend the number of privates, per troop and company, within the State, from the minimum, sixty-four, to any number not exceeding one hundred.

7. Privates in troops of cavalry, to be also designated *troopers;* and privates in companies of artillery, *matrosses;* and light infantry and riflemen to be included in the general denomination of *infantry.*

8. Divisions, brigades, regiments, and battalions, may consist of different arms, as cavalry, artillery, and infantry, as above: and when several troops of cavalry, whether single, or organized into regiments or battalions, are united for parade, instruction, or service, they will be subject to an organization in part, peculiar to this arm; thus, two troops will constitute a squadron, two squadrons a battalion, and, as in the other arms, two battalions a regiment: but, on the accidental or temporary union of two or more squadrons, without field officers of this arm, the commander of the division or brigade, to which the squadrons belong, may detach one or two field officers to command the squadrons so united. A similar rule would be applied to a temporary or accidental union of two or more companies of artillery in the same battery, or line of batteries; and to two or more companies of light infantry or riflemen.

9. It is proposed that the said Militia be officered by the respective States, as follows: *To each division,* one Major General, with two Aids-de-Camp, (to be appointed by the Major General,) each with the rank of Major; one Division Adjutant General, with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel: one Division Quartermaster, with the rank of Major; and one Chaplain—the three latter to be permanently attached to the division. *To each brigade,* one Brigadier General, with one Aid-de-Camp, (to be appointed by the Brigadier General,) with the rank of Captain; one Brigade Major, with the rank of Major; and one Brigade Quartermaster, with the rank of Captain—the two latter to be attached permanently to the brigade. *To each regiment,* one Colonel, one Regimental Adjutant, and one Re-

gimental Quartermaster—both to be selected by the Colonel from the Lieutenants of the regiment; one Surgeon and one Assistant Surgeon—both to be appointed by the Colonel, and by him attached to the respective battalions of his regiment; and one Regimental Sergeant Major, and one Regimental Quartermaster Sergeant—both to be appointed by the Colonel from the enrolled men of his regiment. *To each battalion*, one Lieutenant Colonel, or one Major; but there shall be only one Lieutenant Colonel in the same regiment, whose battalion, when united with that of the Major, will be entitled to the right, and when, also, both the battalions will take the denomination of wings. *To every battalion*, one Battalion Adjutant, and one Battalion Quartermaster, both to be selected by the commander of the battalion from its Lieutenants; one Battalion Sergeant Major, one Battalion Quartermaster Sergeant, and one Principal Musician—the three latter to be appointed by the commander of the battalion, from the enrolled men of the battalion; provided, nevertheless, that, as often as the two battalions of a regiment unite, and as long as they shall remain united, for parade, instruction, or service, the Battalion Adjutants, Quartermasters, Sergeant Majors, and Quartermaster Sergeants, shall return to, and do duty in, the line of their respective battalions. *To each troop and company*, one Captain, one First Lieutenant, and one Second Lieutenant—to which add, one Second Lieutenant to each troop of Cavalry, and one First Lieutenant and one Second Lieutenant to each company of artillery.

10. In battalions of infantry, when serving separately, or not united into regiments, the State color will belong to the Lieutenant Colonel's battalion, and the regimental color, to the Major's battalion, each color to be borne by a sergeant-color-bearer, posted in the front rank, between two corporals, on the left of the right centre company, and the color-bearer with the two corporals on his right and left will be covered by three other corporals in the rear rank; but when the two battalions of a regiment unite into one, the two colors shall be borne and posted as is prescribed for the colors of the infantry of the United States' Army.

The following table exhibits the number of troops or companies, battalions, regiments, brigades, divisions, enrolled men, and officers, which the foregoing propositions would give to each State and to the *District of Columbia*, to which it is also proposed to extend this plan of enrolment and organization. But as the population of the District of Columbia is less than that of the smallest State, it is further proposed that the brigade to be organized therein, may consist of but *two* regiments.

It is proposed to leave the militia of the Territories of the United States, in all respects precisely on the present footing.

In the Table the term *minimum total* is used to express the whole number of *enrolled men* (exclusive of officers) at the rate of sixty-four privates per troop and company: *maximum total* the whole number of enrolled men at the rate of one hundred privates per troop and company: *minimum aggregate*, the minimum total, added to the whole number of officers, and *maximum aggregate*, the maximum total, added to the whole number of officers—the number of officers, non-commissioned officers, and musicians—also, the number of divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions, and troops and companies, remaining the same, both for the minimum and maximum number of privates.

STATES.	Troops and Companies.	Battalions.	Regiments.	Brigades.	Divisions	Minimum Total.	Maximum Total.	Officers.	Minimum aggregate	Maximum aggregate.
Maine,	168	42	21	7	3	12,768	18,816	655	13,423	19,471
New Hampshire	144	36	18	6	3	10,944	16,128	564	11,508	16,692
Massachusetts,	312	78	39	13	6	23,712	34,944	1,219	24,931	36,163
Vermont,	120	30	15	5	2	9,120	13,440	467	9,587	13,907
Rhode Island,	48	12	6	2	1	3,648	5,376	188	3,836	5,564
Connecticut,	144	36	18	6	3	10,944	16,128	564	11,508	16,692
New York,	816	204	102	34	17	62,016	91,392	3,196	65,212	94,588
New Jersey,	144	36	18	6	3	10,944	16,128	564	11,508	16,692
Pennsylvania,	624	156	78	26	13	47,424	69,888	2,444	49,868	72,332
Delaware,	24	6	3	1	-	1,824	2,688	91	1,915	2,779
Maryland,	216	54	27	9	4	16,416	24,192	843	17,259	25,035
Virginia,	528	132	66	22	11	40,128	59,136	2,068	42,196	61,204
North Carolina,	312	78	39	13	6	23,712	34,944	1,219	24,931	36,163
South Carolina,	216	54	27	9	4	16,416	24,192	843	17,259	25,035
Georgia,	168	42	21	7	3	12,768	18,816	655	13,423	19,471
Alabama,	72	18	9	3	1	5,472	8,064	279	5,751	8,343
Mississippi,	24	6	3	1	-	1,824	2,688	91	1,915	2,779
Louisiana,	72	18	9	3	1	5,472	8,064	279	5,751	8,343
Tennessee,	216	54	27	9	4	16,416	24,192	843	17,259	25,035
Kentucky,	288	72	36	12	6	21,888	32,256	1,128	23,016	33,384
Ohio,	336	84	42	14	7	25,536	37,632	1,316	26,852	38,948
Indiana,	72	18	9	3	1	5,472	8,064	279	5,751	8,343
Missouri,	24	6	3	1	-	1,824	2,688	91	1,915	2,779
Illinois,	24	6	3	1	-	1,824	2,688	91	1,915	2,779
District Columbia,	16	4	2	1	-	1,216	1,792	61	1,277	1,853
	5,128	1,282	641	214	99	389,728	574,336	20,038	410,374	595,270

The numbers in the eighth column do not include the additional lieutenant proposed for each troop of cavalry, or the two additional lieutenants proposed for each company of artillery; because, the proportions of those arms, respectively, to the infantry, the Board proposed to leave to the discretion of the several States. But it is presumed, the proportion of cavalry to infantry, or of artillery to infantry, would in no State exceed one to eleven. At this rate, the additional lieutenants would be six to a brigade, or 1284 for the 214 brigades.

Camps of Instruction.

11. For the instruction of officers, it is recommended that each State appoint as many camps of instruction as there may be divisions of militia organized in the State, or if there be no divisions in the State, then a camp for its brigade.

12. At such periods as the respective States may appoint, it is recommended that all the officers of each division, or in a State that has no division, all the officers of the brigade, surgeons and assistant surgeons in both cases excepted, be assembled at the camp appointed as above, and there be held assembled and encamped ten successive days in each year, under the immediate command of the senior officer actually present, of the division or brigade. The military instruction, both theoretical and practical, to be conducted, at each camp, by a competent instructer, under the superintendence and direction of the commanding officer of the camp—the practical part at a rate of not less than six hours a day, for the ten days' encampment; and, in order the better to introduce uniformity of practice under the sytems of instruction which may have been established by Congress for the different arms, as cavalry, artillery, and infantry, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of War, on applications made by the Executives of the several States, to provide competent instructers, and, as far as practicable, by selections from the officers of the Army, or graduates of the United States' Military Academy: provided that the number of instructers so detailed, or employed by the Secretary of War, shall not exceed one for each camp of instruction, as above.

13. The chaplain of each division, who shall be required to attend the annual encampment of the officers of his division, to be held only to the performance of his clerical duties; and a similar exemption extended to the surgeon, or assistant surgeon, one for each camp, to be detailed by the commander of the camp, from the surgeons and assistant surgeons of the division or brigade.

14. It is recommended, that there be allowed, and paid by the United States, to each officer who shall be encamped, as

above,—— per day, for each day that he may be encamped, not exceeding ten in the same year, and to each officer at the rate of — cents per mile, for every mile he may necessarily travel once from his home to his camp, and once back in the same year.

15. To the instructers detailed or employed, as above, it is recommended that there be allowed and paid by the United States as follows: if they be officers of the Army, to each a per diem of —— for each day actually employed at a camp of instruction, and the transportation of an officer of the Army; and if the instructers be other than officers of the Army, twice that per diem to each, and the mileage of —— cents, as above.

16. It is recommended that —— dollars per day be allowed and paid by the United States, for the hire of musicians at each camp, for the ten days' encampment.

According to the foregoing propositions, or recommendations, there would be 104 camps of instruction in each year—99 for divisions, and five for independent brigades, including that of the District of Columbia. The accompanying estimates exhibit the probable amount of expense of the whole scheme of instruction herein proposed, according to the different data assumed. See estimates, Nos. I, II, III.

The number of officers who would probably be encamped in the same year, if the scheme be adopted by the proper authorities, may be stated in this place.

The whole number of officers according to the foregoing Table - - - - - - -	20,038
Additional officers proposed for the cavalry and artillery, not included in the table, say - -	1,284
	21,322
Deduct all the surgeons and assistant surgeons, except 104, for the 104 camps - - - -	1,178
	20,144
From this number there may be deducted, say one officer in every six, as the number that would probably be unavoidably absent from the camps	3,386
Number of officers who would probably be encamped in the same year - - - - -	16,758

All which is most respectfully submitted.

WINFIELD SCOTT,
Major General, and President of the Board.

ESTIMATES of the probable expense of the Annual Camps of Instruction, proposed and recommended by the Board of Officers, of which Major General Scott is President, convened at Washington, under the orders of the Secretary of War.—Note. *Only one of the items of Expenditure (the first) is varied in the Tables.*

No 1.

Probable number of officers that would be encamped for instruction in the same year, 16,758.	
If each officer be allowed $ 1,50 per day for the ten days encampment, to cover his necessary expenses, this item would be, for the 16,758 officers - - - - -	$ 251,360
Mileage for the same number of officers, say at 5 cents per mile, estimated at $ 2,50, for each officer, each year -	41,894
Say 50 instructers selected from the Army at a per diem each of $ 4, for ten days each - - - - - -	2,000
Say 54 other instructers, at a per diem of $ 8 each, for ten days each - - - - - - - - - -	4,320
NOTE. The transportation and mileage of the instructers not calculated.	
For the hire of music at each camp, ten days for the 104 camps at, say $ 5 a day each - - - - - - -	5,200
	$ 304,774
If the United States furnish horsemen's tents, say at the rate of one for every four officers, the number of tents would be about 4190, and the first cost (at $ 25,50 each,) $ 106,795. The tents, placed under the care of the respective division and brigade quartermasters, and by them annually reported and accounted for, through the Executives of the respective States, would probably last, at least, eight years. On these suppositions, add to the above items one-eighth of the first cost of the tents, or - - -	13,349
Whole cost of the 104 annual camps, as above, - -	$ 318,123

NOTE. It is not supposed that other articles of camp equipage would be required, than tents, either from the United States or the respective States.

No. II.

16,758 Officers, at $ 1,25 cents, for ten days each - -	$ 209,495
Mileage of the same officers, as in estimate No. I. - -	41,894
104 Instructers, say the same as in estimate No. I. - -	6,320
The hire of music, say the same as in estimate No. I. -	5,200
	$ 262,909
To which, if tents be allowed, add, as in estimate No. I.	13,349
Total,	$ 276,258

No. III.

16,758 Officers, each at $ 1 per day, for ten days - -	$ 167,580
Mileage of the same officers, the same as before - -	41,894
104 Instructers, the same as before - - - - - -	6,320
Music, the same as before - - - - - - -	5,200
	$ 220,994
To which, if tents be allowed, add, as before - - -	13,349
Total,	$ 234,343

LAWS OF THE UNITED STATES.

AN ACT making appropriations for the erection of certain Fortifications

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the following sums be, and the same are hereby, appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated; namely—

For a fort on Throg's Neck, East River, New York, twenty-five thousand dollars.

For re-building Fort Delaware, Delaware River, fifty thousand dollars.

For a fort on Foster's Bank, Pensacola Harbor, Florida, twenty-five thousand dollars.

For a fort on Grande Terre, Barataria, Louisiana, twenty-five thousand dollars.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

AN ACT in addition to the Act for the gradual improvement of the Navy of the United States.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That for the gradual improvement of the Navy of the United States, the sum of five hundred thousand dollars, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, be, and the same is hereby, appropriated annually for six years, from and after the third day of March, eighteen hundred and thirty-three, when the present appropriation expires.

Sec. 2.—*And be it further enacted*, That the President of the United States be, and he is hereby authorized and empowered to cause the above mentioned appropriation to be applied, as directed and prescribed by the act of the third of March, eighteen hundred and twenty-seven, to which this is in addition, the provisions whereof are hereby continued in force for the term above mentioned, and to be applied also to the purchase of other necessary materials as well as timber suitable for the construction of vessels of war.

Sec. 3.—*And be it further enacted*, That, in addition to the provisions now in force on the subject of the live oak growing on the public lands, it shall be the duty of all collectors of the customs within the territory of Florida, and the States of Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, before allowing a clearance to any vessel laden in whole or in part with live oak timber, to ascertain satisfactorily that such timber was cut from private

lands, or, if from public ones, by consent of the Navy Department. And it is hereby, made the duty of all officers of the customs, and of the land officers within such Territory and States, to cause prosecutions to be seasonably instituted against all persons known to be guilty of depredations on, or injuries to, the live oak growing on the public lands.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

AN ACT to improve the condition of the non-commissioned officers and privates of the Army of the United States, and to prevent desertion.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That, from and after the passage of this act, all enlistments in the Army of the United States, shall be for three years; and that the monthly pay of the non-commissioned officers and soldiers shall be as follows, viz: to each sergeant major, quartermaster sergeant, and chief musician, sixteen dollars; to the first sergeant of a company, fifteen dollars: to all other sergeants, twelve dollars each; to each artificer, ten dollars; to each corporal, eight dollars, and to each musician and private soldier, six dollars; and that all enlistments in the Marine Corps shall be for four years; and that the monthly pay of the non-commissioned officers and soldiers in the said corps, shall be as follows, viz: to each sergeant major and quartermaster sergeant seventeen dollars; to the drum major, fife major, the orderly sergeants of posts, and first sergeants of guards at sea, sixteen dollars each; to all other sergeants, thirteen dollars; to each corporal, nine dollars; to each musician, eight dollars; and to each private seven dollars.

Sec. 2.—*And be it further enacted*, That one dollar of the monthly pay of every musician and private soldier, shall be retained until the expiration of the two first years of their enlistment, when each shall receive the twenty four dollars retained pay, which shall have so accrued: *Provided*, He shall have served honestly and faithfully that portion of the term of his first enlistment.

Sec. 3.—*And be it further enacted*, That every able bodied musician or private soldier, who may re-enlist into his company or regiment, within two months before, or one month after, the expiration of his term of service, shall receive two months extra pay, besides the pay and other allowances which may be due to him on account of the unexpired period of any enlistment.

Sec. 4.—*And be it further enacted*, That every able bodied musician or soldier, who shall re-enlist into his company or regiment, as specified in the third section of this act, shall receive his full pay at the rate of six dollars per month, without any temporary deduction therefrom.

Sec. 5.—*And be it further enacted*, That no premium to officers, for enlisting recruits, nor bounties to recruits for enlisting, shall be allowed after the passage of this act.

Sec. 6.—*And be it further enacted*, That no person who has been convicted of any criminal offence, shall be enlisted into the Army of the United States.

Sec. 7.—*And be it further enacted*, That the seventh section of the act, entitled "An act making further provision for the army of the U. States," passed on sixteenth May, one thousand eight hundred and twelve, be, and the same is hereby, repealed, so for as it applies to any enlisted soldier, who shall be convicted by a general court martial of the crime of desertion.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

AN ACT to authorize the President of the United States to exchange certain lands belonging to the Navy Yard at Brooklyn, for other lands contiguous thereto.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the President of the United States be, and he is hereby, authorized to execute a conveyance to the Corporation of the village of Brooklyn, in the State of New York, of the interest of the United States in certain lands forming a part of the navy yard at said village of Brooklyn, and designated in a petition from said Corporation to Congress, on condition that said Corporation convey a good title to the United States of such other property contiguous to said yard, and obtain releases to the United States of certain part of said yard now in controversy, so that, in his opinion, the conveyances from said Corporation shall be equally beneficial to the United States as the property granted to said Corporation.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

AN ACT for the more perfect Defence of the Frontiers.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That in lieu of the battalion of mounted rangers authorized by the act of the 15th of June, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two, there be a regiment of dragoons, to be composed and organized as follows, to wit: one colonel, one lieutenant colonel, one major, one quartermaster sergeant, and two chief buglers, one adjutant, who shall be a lieutenant, one sergeant-major, one chief musician, and ten companies; each company to consist of one captain, one first lieutenant, and one second lieutenant, exclusive of the lieutenant who is to be the adjutant of the regiment; four sergeants, one of whom shall act as quartermaster sergeant to the company, four corporals, two buglers, one farrier and blacksmith, and sixty privates.

Sec. 2.—*And be it further enacted*, That the officers, non-commissioned officers, musicians and privates, when mounted, be entitled to the same pay and emoluments as was allowed to dragoons during the war, and when on foot, the same pay and emoluments as are now allowed to the officers, non-commissioned officers, musicians and privates of a regiment of infantry; and that the farrier and blacksmith be allowed the same pay and allowances as are allowed to an artificer of artillery.

Sec. 3.—*And be it further enacted*, That the said regiment of dragoons shall be liable to serve on horse or foot, as the President may direct; shall be subject to the rules and articles of war, be recruited in the same manner, and with the same limitations; that the officers, non-commissioned officers, musicians, farriers, and privates, shall be entitled to the same provisions for wounds and disabilities, the same provisions for widows and children, and the same allowances and benefits in every respect, as are allowed the other troops constituting the present military peace establishment.

Sec. 4.—*And be it further enacted*, That the President of the United States be authorized to carry into effect this act, as soon as he may deem it expedient, and to discharge the present battalion of mounted rangers, on their being relieved by the said regiment of dragoons.

Sec. 5.—*And be it further enacted*, That the sum required to carry into effect the provisions of this act, is hereby appropriated, in addition to the appropriations for the military establishment for the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-three.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

ORDER, No. 14.

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, March 6th, 1833.

I....THE following list of appointments in the UNITED STATES REGIMENT OF DRAGOONS, has been received from the War Office, and is published for general information:

WAR DEPARTMENT, *5th March,* 1833.

II....The President has made the following appointments in the Regiment of the United States' Dragoons, to be raised under the Act of Congress approved March 2d, 1833:

Names, Rank, & date of appointment.	Dates of former Commissions.
COLONEL.	
1 Henry Dodge, 4 March, 1833	Major of Rangers, 21 June, 1832
LIEUTENANT COLONEL.	
1 Steph. W. Kearny, 4 March, 1833	Major 3d Infantry, 1st May, 1829 Bvt. 1st April, 1823
MAJOR.	
1 Richard B. Mason, 4 March, 1833	Captain 1st Infantry, 31st July 1819
CAPTAINS.	
1 Clifton Wharton, 4 March, 1833	Captain 6th Inf. 22 April, 1830
2 Edwin V. Sumner, 4 March, 1833	1st. Lt. 2d Inf. 25 Jan. 1823
3 Reuben Holmes, 4 March, 1833	1st Lt. 6th Inf. 15 Feb. 1826
4 David Hunter, 4 March, 1833	1st. Lt. 5th Inf. 30 June, 1828
FIRST LIEUTENANTS.	
1 Wash. Seawell, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 7th Inf. 1 July, 1825
2 David Perkins, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 5th Inf. 1 July, 1827
3 Philip St. G. Cooke, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 6th Inf. 1 July, 1827 Adj. 6th Reg.
4 Abm. Van Buren, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 2d Inf. 1 July, 1827
SECOND LIEUTENANTS.	
1 James F. Izard, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 2d Inf. 1 July, 1828
2 Jefferson Davis, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 1st. Inf. 1 July, 1828
3 Thomas Swords, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 4th Inf. 1 July, 1829
4 Joseph Ritner, 4 March, 1833	2d Lt. 4th Inf. 1 July, 1830

III ...The organization of the Regiment of Dragoons will be perfected hereafter, by the selection of such officers from the Battalion of Rangers as may be deemed qualified for the service. The Mounted Rangers will be continued in service until relieved by the regular cavalry.

BY ORDER OF MAJOR GENERAL MACOMB:
R. JONES, ADJUTANT GENERAL.

No.	POSTS.	State or Ter.	Post Office.	Permanent Commanders.	Regiments.
	Eastern Department.				
1	Fort Winnebago	M. ter.	Ft. Winnebgao	Lt Col Cutler	5 inf.
2	—— Brady	"	Sault St Marie	Bvt Maj Fowle	"
3	—— Mackinac	"	Michilimacinac	BvtMajThompson	2 inf.
4	—— Howard	"	Green Bay	Bvt B G Brooke	5 inf.
5	—— Dearborn	Illin's	Chicago	Maj Whistler	2 inf.
6	—— Gratiot	M. ter.	Fort Gratiot	Bvt Maj Payne	4 art.
7	—— Niagara	N. Y.	Youngstown	Lt Col Cummings	2 inf.
8	Hancock Barracks	Maine	Houlton	Bvt Maj Clark	"
9	Fort Sullivan	"	Eastport	Capt Childs	3 art.
10	—— Preble	"	Portland	Capt McClintock	"
11	—— Constitution	N. H.	Portsmouth	Capt Ansart	"
12	—— Independence	Mass.	Boston	Bvt Lt Col Brooks	"
13	—— Wolcott	R. I.	Newport	Bvt Maj Lomax	"
14	—— Trumbull	Conn.	New London	Capt Thruston	"
15	West Point	N. Y.	West Point	Bvt Lt Col Thayer	
16	Fort Columbus	"	New York		
17	—— Hamilton	"	"	Bvt Maj Pierce	4 art.
18	—— McHenry	Md.	Baltimore	Bvt Col Walbach	1 art.
19	—— Severn	"	Annapolis	Bvt Maj Erving	4 art.
20	—— Washington	"	Ft. Washington	Bvt Maj Mason	1 art.
21	—— Monroe	Va.	Old Pt. Comfort	Bvt Col Eustis	4 art.
22	Bellona Arsenal	"	Argyle	Capt F Whiting	1 art.
23	Fort Johnston	N. C.	Smithville	Bvt Maj Churchill	"
24	Beaufort	"	Beaufort	Capt Griswold	"
25	Fort Moultrie	S. C.	Charleston	Lt Col Bankhead	3 art.
26	Castle Pinkney				
27	Augusta Arsenal	Geor'a	Augusta		
28	Oglethorpe Barracks	"	Savannah	Capt Belton	2 art
29	Fort Marion	Flor'a	St. Augustine	Capt Drane	"
	Western Department.				
1	Fort Snelling	U. Mi.	Fort Snelling	Maj Bliss	1 inf
2	—— Crawford	"	Praire du Chien	Col Z Taylor	"
3	—— Armstrong	Illin's	Rock Island	Lt Col Davenport	"
4	—— Leavenworth	Misso'	Ft Leav'nworth	Bvt Maj Riley	6 inf.
5	Jefferson Barracks	"	Jef. Barracks	Bvt B G Atkinson	"
6	Fort Gibson	Ark's	Fort Gibson	Col Arbuckle	7 inf.
7	—— Jesup	Lou'a	Fort Jesup	B G Leavenworth	3 inf.
8	—— Towson	Ark's	Little river Lick	Lt Col Vose	"
9	Baton Rouge	Lou'a	Baton Rouge	Bvt Lt Col Foster	4 inf.
10	New Orleans	"	New Orleans	Lt Col Twiggs	
11	Fort Wood	"	"	Bv MajZantzinger	2 art.
12	—— Pike	"	Petite Coquille	BvtMajMountfort	"
13	—— Jackson	"	Fort Jackson	Capt Baden	"
14	—— King	Flor'a	Seminole Ag'y	Capt Graham	4 inf.
15	Key West	"	Key West	Bvt Maj Glassel	"
	Arsenals.				
	Kennebeck	Maine	Augusta	Bvt Capt Mellon	2 art.
	Watertown	Mass.	Watertown	Maj Craig	Ord.
	Champlain	Ver't	Vergennes	Lt D H Vinton	3 art.
	Watervliet	N. Y.	Watervliet	Lt Col Talcott	Ord.
	Rome	"	Rome	Bvt Capt Abeel	2 art.
	Allegheny	Penn.	Pittsburgh	Bvt Maj Baker	Ord.
	Frankford	"	Frankford	Bvt Lt Col Worth	Ord.
	Pikesville	Md.	Pikesville	Lt R D A Wade	3 art.
	Washington	D. C.	Washington	Capt Mordecai	Ord.
	St. Louis	Misso.	St. Louis	Capt Symington	Ord.
	Mount Vernon	Alab'a	Mount Vernon	Capt Harding	Ord.
	Baton Rouge	Lou'a	Baton Rouge	Capt Bradford	Ord.

MIDSHIPMEN—NAVY UNITED STATES.

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY,

Transmitting the information required by a resolution of the House of Representatives of the 14th February, in relation to the number of Midshipmen in the service of the United States from the several States and Territories thereof, &c. &c.

NAVY DEPARTMENT, *February* 18, 1833.

SIR: In compliance with a resolution of the House of Representatives, passed the 14th instant, I have the honor to submit three tabular statements, accompanied by brief explanations of the facts and principles upon which they have been prepared.

These statements and explanations are believed to contain all the information desired by the resolution.

The document marked A, shows the actual number of midshipmen in office from each State and Territory and from this District, at the several periods indicated in the resolution, including March 12th, 1828, the date of the former report on this subject, made by the Navy Department to the House of Representatives.

It shows further the number of midshipmen to which each State was entitled at each of those periods, under the census of A. D. 1820, and conformably to the ratio of the electoral vote of each, in pursuance of the principle applied in the report before mentioned.

But, as the report assigns a full number to each State, founded on the computation of 400 instead of 450 midshipmen, which latter was the number included in the estimates of that year, it gives a proportion of only 1 1-2 to each electoral vote. Whereas, in order to embrace all the midshipmen included in the estimates of that and most of the subsequent years, and to leave a due number for appointment among the Territories and to this District, the proportion should be about one and two-thirds to each electoral vote. Accordingly, this last proportion has been applied, at each of the periods indicated, to the several States, throwing away any fraction in the result, or allowing a whole number for it, as small or large, and dividing the residue of the 450 between the Territories and this District. The number of 450 has been used in the computation at all of the above periods, because the real estimates have differed so little from that number as not materially to affect the general results.

The estimates submitted to Congress for A. D.

1828,	were	450
1829,	do.	450
1830,	do.	445
1831,	do.	454
1832,	do.	444
1833,	do.	450

A column has been added to the document (A) showing what the number to each State, &c. will be under the census of A. D. 1830; and which number has had some influence in some of the selections the past year, and will be considered the only guide as to the strict proportion of each State after the 3d of March, A. D. 1833. That proportion will be about 1 1-2 to each electoral vote, throwing away the fraction in the result, where the fraction of the population in the State, not represented, is small, and allowing a whole number for it where that fraction is over one half.

The second document (B,) in conformity to the report of March, 1828, shows the number of midshipmen in each State, &c. over or under its due proportion at each of the above periods, predicated on the ratio and estimates adopted in document A.

It is just to remark, however, that some of the apparent inequalities at those different periods are, probably, greater from the circumstance that the corps of midshipmen, as limited by the estimates, was not, at all those periods, equally full; the custom not having been always uniform as to the season of the year when vacancies were filled. But none of those inequalities have arisen from exceeding the estimates, unless on one occasion, among those periods the very large number appointed beyond the estimates may have increased the excess in some of the States, while it obviously lessened the deficiencies in others of them. The whole number now exactly agrees with the estimates, except that two persons, removed from the corps of midshipmen in A. D. 1830, have recently been restored. In pursuance of the views submitted by this department to the House of Representatives in March, 1828, frequent efforts have been made to correct the inequalities then, and before that time, existing. But those could be successful only as vacancies occurred in the particular States having an excess: and the process has been made still more slow and difficult by reasons, similar to those, which caused most of the original inequalities as detailed in the report before named.

At the present period, however, it will be seen that the excesses in particular States, &c. causing an inequality, have become less than at any of the other specified periods; and that the deficiencies, existing chiefly in the western and south-

western States, are also less than at any former period, when the whole number of appointments did not exceed the estimates. By constant efforts hereafter, it is hoped a still greater equality will gradually be attained, though some disproportion and irregularities will always be unavoidable from various causes enumerated in the report of A. D. 1828; from mistakes in the register and the returns; from doubtful residences of some candidates; and from peculiar circumstances in the personal claims of others. Without making more midshipmen than the estimates justify, or the wants of the service require, it is not possible for all the deficiencies to be supplied till vacancies enough occur in those particular States having an excess: and the difficulties in then gratifying many of those who apply for appointments, and the numerous painful refusals and delays then indispensable, will be manifest, when the facts are communicated that the applications now on file for the situation of midshipmen exceed 1,300, or average over 50 from each State, and are weekly increasing; while the whole annual vacancies in all the States average only about 35, or less than one and a half to each State, and are not over one-fourth of that number in the particular States having an excess.

The document (C) shows the number of midshipmen actually employed on the 1st of July and January in each year since March, 1828.

From the manner of keeping our records, and from the nature of the naval service, slight errors in some of these numbers may have occurred; but they cannot be so large as to influence essentially the general proportions.

The average number, engaged in active duty at any one time, being about 316, there would be left, when the corps was entirely full, about 134 not on such duty. Of these about 30 are usually not on pay, being new appointments, and being left from six months to a year without orders, but preparing for a change in their pursuits, and for a compliance with orders, when the state of the service may permit. Of the residue, about 30 are usually in attendance at the schools at one of the yards; and the remainder, from 60 to 80, are divided into classes of invalids, sick, on leave, and waiting orders, after long cruises, subject, when required and in health, to relieve such others as have been the usual time on duty at the yards and at sea.

From these data, my opinion is, that the number of 450 is not larger than the present size of our naval establishment requires, pursuing the present practice as to new appointments and attendance on school. But it will be seen, that it could be reduced to about 400 without essentially affecting the service; except in that event those recently appointed would

sooner, and with less preparation, be placed on pay and on duty, and the opportunities of instruction now enjoyed on shore would become somewhat diminished.

Respectfully yours,

LEVI WOODBURY.

To the SPEAKER *of the House of Representatives.*

A.

STATEMENT showing the number of Midshipmen in the Navy, from the several States, &c., on the 12th day of March, 1828; 4th of March, 1829; 12th of May, 1831; and 14th of February, 1833; and the proportion of each State, &c., under the census of 1820 and the census of 1830.

	Proportion under census of		Number in service on the			
	1820	1830	12 March, 1828.	4 March, 1829.	12 May, 1831.	14 Febr'y. 1833.
Maine,	15	15	8	13	12	14
New Hampshire,	14	11	10	12	10	11
Vermont,	11	11	7	9	7	8
Massachusetts,	25	21	18	20	18	19
Rhode Island,	7	6	6	8	8	7
Connecticut,	14	12	15	13	10	13
New York,	60	63	48	55	43	56
New Jersey,	14	12	20	26	15	15
Pennsylvania,	46	45	38	51	39	43
Delaware,	5	5	5	3	3	4
Maryland,	18	15	35	35	29	27
Virginia,	40	34	62	70	68	65
North Carolina,	25	22	15	22	21	18
South Carolina,	18	17	10	15	14	17
Georgia,	15	16	9	14	12	18
Alabama,	8	11	6	7	6	6
Mississippi,	5	6	5	4	5	5
Louisiana,	8	8	9	8	7	6
Tennessee,	18	22	9	15	13	17
Kentucky,	22	22	11	22	17	16
Ohio,	26	32	13	23	18	20
Indiana,	8	13	7	8	5	8
Illinois,	5	7	2	4	4	5
Missouri,	5	6	4	4	3	5
Michigan Territory,	4	4	2	2	1	2
Arkansas,	4	4	0	2	2	2
Florida,	4	4	4	4	3	4
District of Columbia,	6	6	23	30	22	21
	450	450	401	499	415	452

B.

STATEMENT showing the excess and deficiency of the number of Midshipmen in each State, &c. at the periods and in the proportion named in the table A.

	Excess in				Deficiency in			
	1828.	1829.	1831.	1833.	1828.	1829.	1831.	1833.
Maine,	-	-	-	-	7	2	3	1
New Hampshire,	-	-	-	-	4	2	4	3
Vermont,	-	-	-	-	4	2	4	3
Massachusetts,	-	-	-	-	7	5	7	6
Rhode Island,	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	
Connecticut,	1	-	-	-	-	1	4	1
New York,	-	-	-		12	5	17	4
New Jersey,	6	12	1	-1	-	-	-	
Pennsylvania,	-	5	-	-	8	-	7	3
Delaware,	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	1
Maryland,	17	17	11	9	-	-	-	
Virginia,	22	30	28	25	-	-	-	
North Carolina,	-	-	-	-	10	3	4	7
South Carolina,	-	-	-	-	8	3	4	1
Georgia,	-	-	-	3	6	1	3	
Alabama,	-	-	-	-	2	1	2	2
Mississippi,	-	-	-	-	-	1		
Louisiana,	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
Tennessee,	-	-	-	-	9	3	5	1
Kentucky,	-	-	-	-	11	-	5	6
Ohio,	-	-	-	-	13	3	8	6
Indiana,	-	-	-	-	1	-	3	
Illinois,	-	-	-	-	3	1	1	
Missouri,	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	
Michigan Territory,	-	-	-	-	2	2	3	2
Arkansas do	-	-	-	-	4	2	2	2
Florida do	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	
District of Columbia,	17	24	16	15	-	-	-	
	64	99	57	52	113	40	92	51

C.

STATEMENT showing the number of Midshipmen actually employed on the 1st day of July, 1828, and on each succeeding 1st day of January and July, up to January, 1833, inclusive.

Time of employment.	Number actually employed.	Time of employment.	Number actually employed.
1st July, 1828	265	1st Jan. 1831	318
1st Jan. 1829	330	1st July, 1831	357
1st July, 1829	360	1st Jan. 1832	283
1st Jan. 1830	321	1st July, 1832	320
1st July, 1830	313	1st Jan. 1833	297

MEMOIR ON GUNPOWDER.

Gunpowder is so essential in all warlike operations, both on the sea and land, and so much depends upon its quality, that any suggestions which will lead to an improvement in the manufacture, the best means of testing its proof, or for its preservation from damage, will be interesting to those whose duties call for the frequent use of the article.

"A memoir on Gunpowder, in which are discussed the principles both of its manufacture and proof, by John Braddock, Esq., Deputy Commissary of Ordnance," was published last year in London. It forms a volume of 127 pages, and embodies the results of twenty years' observation and practical experience of the author; the book is divided into sections and paragraphs, each section treating of a particular branch of the manufacture, proof, or use. We have selected the fifth section for the present number, and shall make further extracts for the next.

SECTION V.—ON FIRED GUNPOWDER.

140. Under this head I propose, first, in a few words, to state the force and effects of fired gunpowder; and, secondly, to consider sundry causes that modify its effects, and very much influence the range distances, both of proof trials and of actual practice.

141. The force of gunpowder results from the decomposition of its parts. The more minute those parts are, and the closer their contact, the more vivid their action, and the more powerful the combined effect of the whole. This remark refers to the elementary particles of the mixture, and not to the mere density of the powder, which being produced by pressure, merely brings those particles into closer contact without respect to their previous size. It is the exceedingly fine and minute division of the original ingredients that is here alluded to, their perfect intermixture and incorporation, and their being worked up, embodied, and compounded together into one perfect homogeneous mass. When this is the case, and the ingredients are pure, the gunpowder is as perfect as the present state of science and knowledge can make it.

142. The action of the elastic fluids generated by fired powder, is considered to be the same as the power of steam, or of common air of the same degree of density. The best authorities represent the force of these elastic products to be proportionate to the space they occupy; that is, they possess only one-half the power, when they occupy a double space; one-third the power, when they expand into a treble space, and so on:—the ordinate ratio decreasing in proportion as the expansion increases; the temperature remaining the same.

143. Mr. Robins states, that gunpowder produces, on explosion, a permanently elastic fluid, occupying 244 times the bulk of the powder; and that its expansibility is increased by the heat of the explosion to about 1000 times the elasticity of common [illegible] "But with far better opportunities," says Dr. Hutton, Tract 37, Vol. III. p. 211, "than fell to the lot of Mr. Robins, we have shown that inflamed gunpowder is about double the strength that he has assigned to it; and that it expands itself with the velocity of about 5000 feet per second."

144. The explosion of gunpowder confined in a piece of ordnance is generally supposed to be instantaneous; so it is, but not simultaneous; for that portion of the charge nearest the vent explodes before the portion which is farthest from it, and nearest to the shot. This fact cannot fail to be evident from the following experiment. A charge of large-grained powder was fired from a fowling-piece at a screen of paper ten paces distant, it was perforated by thirty-six grains; but at four paces distant it was pierced with innumerable holes, which could not have occurred, had the explosion of the powder been otherwise than progressive.

145. In theoretic gunnery it is assumed, "that all the powder of the charge is fired before the shot is sensibly removed from its place," but in all large charges this assumption must be false.—Explosion is progressive; for the quantity of power, generated even by a small quantity of powder, is so great, that the shot, as well as the outermost portion of the charge, must be removed before the whole is fired. The flash of a gun is, however a decisive refutation of such a principle, for flame and light are but the media by which gunpowder passes from a solid state into its aerial or gaseous elements, and as the flash is seen in large ordnance eight or ten feet distance from the original position of the charge, not only does the shot remove before the whole explodes, but the simple fact of the flash being seen,* proves also that a part of the charge explodes out of the bore of the piece.—I notice this circumstance because it will hereafter be shewn that large charges are unfit to be used in proof trials of gunpowder; and nothing can be a plainer reason why they are unfit, than the fact that a portion of such charges explodes to no useful end, and produces no effect upon the shell or shot. I now proceed to consider those causes that influence the range both of proof and practice.

DENSITY.

146. The effect of different degrees of density has already been shewn (129, 130, 131); and it having been placed beyond

* In the experiment with ten grains of powder specified in paragraph 177, no flash was seen, and the solid residue of the powder was found adhering

doubt, that specific gravity and glazing have a large influence upon the range; it becomes of course a point of importance in all comparative proof trials to ascertain the respective densities of the powder as accurately and truly as possible.*

147. In order to effect this, the grain ought to be of the same size, and be equalized by being passed through sieves; and perhaps if fine grain were preferred, the real density would be more closely arrived at. But whether the size be large or small, the shape of the grain will modify the result of any experiment made with the view of ascertaining the specific gravity; if it be round, it will pack together closely, whereas, if it be oblong and angular, it will occupy more bulk, and weigh comparatively lighter, though it may probably be of greater absolute density. Thus, from examination, I have no doubt that the Ishapore and Allahabad powders are both denser powders than the Bombay, yet, upon trial, the Bombay powder is represented to shew greater specific gravity than either. The former are pressed and glazed powders of an angular-shaped grain; the Bombay powder is a dirty looking powder, of a round grain and irregular size.

148. I may here offer a remark which will be found very extensive in its application, viz. that on the repetition by one person of an experiment made by another, (although the directions how to perform it may have been scrupulously followed, and every minutiæ strictly attended to,) yet, if corresponding results do not follow, it must not be a matter of surprise.—Such failure is a thing of perpetual occurrence, and may in very many cases be with much greater reason expected than not. Such experiments require their results to be confirmed by repetition.

149. In order that as little variation as possible may occur in ascertaining the density of powder, I would recommend the following apparatus, which I think better calculated than the methods generally used for ascertaining that point, though I must acknowledge that neither this nor any other means that I know of is satisfactory in practice.

150. Prepare a conical vessel of the exact capacity of one cubic foot; place it below a frame containing a hopper, or funnel-shaped reservoir, holding somewhat more than a cubic foot, and having an opening at the bottom with a small slide or some other means of retaining the powder.—When the conical measure has been properly placed, open the slide and let the powder pour down quietly into the measure until it be full.—When full, shut the slide, equalize the powder at the aperture of the

either to the plug of the eprouvette weight, or in the chamber of the eprouvette.

* The degree of gloss or polish imparted by glazing is not reducible to any measure or definable standard. It must be judged of by comparison.

measure; take at least three several weighings, and let the medium of the whole be considered as the common density. The result may be expressed in avoirdupois ounces.

SIZE OF THE GRAIN.

151. We have before discussed this point, and need in this place only to refer to it. (114 to 117.) One remark, however, it may be proper to make, which is, that as the size of the grain materially affects some powders, it seems to point out that at least all pressed and glazed cannon powder ought to be equalized before a proof trial, in order to make a fair experiment: I mean, that if one cannon powder be much larger than another, the larger should be reduced to the size of the smaller, or an adequate allowance made for it.

WINDAGE.

152. The high or low gauge of shot or shells,—the regularity or imperfections of their figure,—their want of sphericity,—their oxidation,—and other defects on their surface, may all be classed under the general idea of windage.

153. The almost incredible difference of effect produced by gunpowder when confined closely, and when suffered to escape by windage, or other means, is a circumstance too well known to all who understand practical gunnery to need any particular notice in this place. I will, however, state one instance of the effect produced by irregular figure in the shell, because it fell under my own notice, and because it powerfully illustrates the necessity of great circumspection being used in proving gunpowder, and the errors which may result from the want of it. The case in point was a proof made at St. Thomas' Mount, in January 1814. Two ounces of Madras powder fired in an 8-inch mortar, with a 48 lb. shell, gave the following ranges:

1st fire	85 feet.
2nd fire	174
3rd fire	132

and the same quantity of fine-grained powder made at Madras, according to the English system of manufacture, gave,

1st fire	105 feet.
2nd fire	183
3rd fire	216

In both which cases there occurs one range by the same powder more than double the distance of another range; although the same shell was used in all the firings, and the weight of the powder and all other circumstances were alike in each trial.

154. To this may be added the following experiments, which are not less remarkable, the variation in the ranges occurring simply from the use of shells of high and low gauge:

Two ounces of English cannon powder threw an old iron ball of 64 lbs. weight, from an 8-inch iron mortar	108 feet.
All circumstances the same, except using a new brass ball of 64 lbs. weight	808 feet.
One ounce of English rifle powder threw an old iron shell weighing 8 lbs. from a 4 1-2 inch mortar	117 yards.
All circumstances the same, except using a new brass shell of 8 lbs. weight	846 yards.

The accuracy of these experiments may be depended on.

ON THE INSTRUMENT OF PROOF.

155. Observe its state, whether it be new or old; but little used or much worn. If it be of the same denomination as some other instrument in which a course of experiments has been carried on, and if it be intended to repeat those experiments with the expectation of arriving at the same results, see that the bore, calibre, weight, and every particular is exactly the same as in the instrument in which the original experiments were made. Every minutiæ ought to be attended to with a care and scrupulosity bordering on fastidiousness; and even then there are many probabilities against the results of the second experiment being the same as the first, particularly if the two trials be made by different persons with different instruments. It may be here observed, that the common expression of the strength or quality of gunpowder, by representing a certain weight of it to project a shell from a given sized mortar a certain number of feet or yards, is quite fallacious, and not in the least to be depended on. To fix the proof range is a point of great difficulty; and in order to it, the most exact and careful description of the ordnance ought to be given. I shall exemplify some of these remarks by what follows. I have known two ounces of the same gunpowder to give the following results in different 8-inch mortars:

One medium trial (iron mortar)	150 feet.
Ditto. Ditto. Ditto.	220
Ditto. Ditto. (brass mortar)	353
Two ounces of English cannon powder ranged in a pendulum eprouvette at Waltham Abbey	20° 15′
The powder and instrument of proof were then sent to India, and two ounces of the same powder ranged in the same eprouvette at Madras	21° 31′

In the experiments made in Bengal in 1828, and repeated at Madras in 1829, the following discrepancies occurred in like denominations of ordnance.

CANNON POWDER, Fired in an 8-inch Iron Gomer Mortar, with a Ball weighing 65 1-2 lbs.	Ishapore.	Allahabad.	Madras.	Bombay.
In Bengal, 2 ounces ranged .	41 yds.	56 yds.	43 yds.	12 yds.
At Madras, ditto . . .	23 "	31 "	28 "	10 "
In Bengal, 1 pound ranged .	358 "	501 "	449 "	183 "
At Madras, ditto . . .	393 "	357 "	460 "	188 "
In Bengal, 1¼ pound ranged .	721 "	1042 "	1135 "	407 "
At Madras, ditto . . .	927 "	903 "	1204 "	513 "

These instances may suffice to shew, that even in the same denomination of ordnance and with an equal charge, the same gunpowder will not always give corresponding results. To say, therefore, that a given weight of gunpowder in any particular piece of ordnance will range a given distance, is not correct. See also paragraphs 154 and 168.

LOADING.

156. A difference of 10 per cent. in the range has been known to occur according as the powder was carelessly thrown into the chamber of a mortar, or carefully packed or piled up in it as close to the vent as possible. Nor should attention be observed in loading only, but after the proof instrument has been charged, it should be fired as quickly as possible. In some proof trials I have known the mortar to be washed out with water and wiped dry: but however dry it may be wiped, unless the piece be very warm, a dampness will remain; and should the charge be deposited only for a few seconds in a damp receptacle, it will be influenced by it. On the other hand, if the piece be much heated, the charge, if not soon fired, will derive considerable benefit from the heat, and so in either case there will arise a cause of irregularity.

POWDER.

157. If in comparative proof trials the hygrometic state of gunpowder could be ascertained by some common well-known hygroscopic standard, it would be highly desirable; but as this is not practicable in consequence of hygrometers being made in a great variety of ways, and having no common measure for zero or unity, the usual method of determining this point is to expose the powders under experiment to the sun, or to any degree of heat common to them all; and the difference of weight

before and after exposure indicates the humidity of the powder. It is best, however, to expose a weight of 100 or 1000 equal parts, and to denote the difference in decimals, such a method of notation being the most convenient for comparison.

158. Humidity and dryness are well known to exert a great and opposite influence on gunpowder; and when it is heated by artificial means, and fired while it possesses a high temperature, the range is amazingly increased. As it may sometimes occur in practice that a longer range may be required while any addition to the charge might not be made effectual to promote it, it may be useful to state an experiment which seems to point out that the same weight of powder will produce this result, if it be only allowed to acquire an increase of temperature before it be used.

One ounce troy of powder fired in a 4 1-2 inch mortar, shell 8 lbs, gave a medium range of . . . . . 141 yards.*
One ounce of the same powder was heated in a copper pan to about 400° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and then fired as before—it gave a medium range of . . . . . 242 yards.

159. I would not advise any of my readers, as practical men, to attempt heating gunpowder for any exigency of the service to the degree of 400° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, but they might with singular propriety practice the suggestion contained in the following judicious remarks made on this experiment by a Committee of the Military Board at Fort St. George, appointed in 1802 to report on Captain Bishop's Memoir.

160. "The astonishing effect of heat on the power of gunpowder, to the extent of doubling its projectile force is correctly stated by Mr. Bishop.—After finishing our proofs of the various sorts which we examined, the powder being usually kept during the experiments in the ordinary temperature of a cocoa-leaf shed, at the same hour of the day; we have occasionally exposed a charge to the heat of the sun for a few minutes before being used, and the range has been invariably increased in a remarkable degree in proportion to the time of exposure and the heat acquired. In many cases of actual service, where the quality of gunpowder is defective, or the quantity insufficient, an officer may be enabled to prolong a defence, or to complete the operations of a siege, by a due attention to this interesting fact, and our president will take care that it shall be particularly impressed on the attention of the officers of the coast artillery."

OBSERVATIONS.

161. I made experiments with the view of ascertaining whether good gunpowder on explosion always produces an equa-

* Captain Bishop's Memoir, 1801.

ble power, and though I did not succeed in establishing the fact, yet I think the probability is in favour of the supposition, and that the variations which occur in practice are attributable more to the instruments made use of than to innate variableness in the power employed. The regularity of recoil, and small differences in the arc of vibration in every successive trial of good powder in the pendulum eprouvette, would seem to indicate in gunpowder a very near approximation to equability of explosive power.

162. Suppose the question granted; allow the power generated to be constant and uniform, yet while there are so many disturbing causes to modify the projectile force of gunpowder, it is quite hopeless to expect constant and uniform results either in practice or experiment. We will collect these disturbing influences into one condensed view, in order to judge of the sum total of their power. We have already noticed, density—size of the grain—windage—particulars concerning the instrument of proof—loading—and the state of the powder. We may subjoin as collateral circumstances, occasional or accidental oversight in the manufactory; want of purity in the ingredients; irregular mixture; variable density in the same powder; imperfect incorporation; irregularity in the size of the grain; bounding of the shell or shot in the bore of the gun; its manner of rotation; influence of side or oblique winds; the influence of wind in other directions; and the resistance of the atmosphere, which may vary in different trials from the same instrument if the projectile be not a perfect sphere and free from asperities on its surface. All of these, and perhaps other circumstances added to them, may, in comparative proof trials, exert their single or united influence to disturb and modify practical results; and then is to be superadded the difficulty of ascertaining which of these disturbing causes acts most powerfully, and which not at all; and to crown the whole comes the utter impossibility of apportioning the precise ratio of allowance to be made for all, or each of them, or for any combined number in any particular case.—If we attach to these considerations the importance that is really due to them, we shall see that those singular difficulties* in the proof of gunpowder which seem to constitute anomalies at variance with any known and acknowledged principle, and which are so discordant among themselves, as to appear beyond the reach of being satisfactorily accounted for, are not altogether so extraordinary as might be imagined, although they do frequently most completely baffle every attempt to apply to them any reasonable principle of explanation.

* See paragraphs 169 and 181.

NOTES ON THE ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES.

When a traveller attempts the description of a country, he is without excuse if he does not give us an accurate sketch of those objects which address themselves immediately to the senses; such as its remarkable features, comprising its seas rivers, forests and mountains; its cities, towns and villages; the manners, dress and occupation of its inhabitants; and others, too numerous to mention.

There is another class of objects, however, which are more remote; whose investigation demands a more patient and sagacious research. Such are the institutions of a state or country, which have been reared during the progressive expansion of its resources; whose existence is intimately and inseparably connected with the genius of the people, and is only a form of expression of their quickening and impelling energies. To set forth these, in their native features and just proportions, requires the hand of a master, while any one of ordinary judgment can delineate an order of architecture, or an edifice, with mathematical precision. In examining institutions, few observers are so happily constituted that they can distrust favorite theories and preconceived notions; few are sufficiently cautious in the adoption of oral accounts; and reference to national characteristics is too infrequent in deciding upon their merits. Objects, when viewed through a medium of varied refracting power, appear misshapen and distorted, and present many changeful hues; and, as Englishmen, when they look towards our country, never use glasses that are perfectly achromatic, we were not surprised, on taking up the No. of the United Service Journal containing the article we have selected, at recognizing few verisimilitudes; and we were prepared, without the necessity of any mental effort, to digest several details, which we presumed might be incorrect from a want of adequate knowledge of the subject. The author seems to be a gentleman of education; but he has left much unsaid, and with genuine English self-complacency, has recorded a long catalogue of blemishes, for a good part of which he is indebted to his own invention; but at last, his Island spirit is consoled with the reflection that we are a vigorous, though renegade, scion of old England. We give his remarks entire, taking the liberty to add a few correctional notes.

FROM THE UNITED SERVICE JOURNAL.

NOTES ON THE ARMY OF THE U. STATES OF AMERICA.

The peace establishment of the United States is composed of 4 regiments of artillery and 7 regiments of infantry, and with staff-officers, amounts to about 6000 men. Each regiment of artillery consists of 9 companies, one of which is equipped as light artillery. A company is officered by a captain, 4 subalterns, and 8 non-commissioned, with 3 artificers, 2 musicians, and 42 privates. A company of infantry, consists of a captain, 2 subalterns, and 7 non-commissioned, 2 musicians, and 42 privates. And to each regiment of artillery and infantry, there are 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 major, an adjutant, sergeant-major, and quartermaster-sergeant. (*a*)

The corps of Military and Topographical Engineers are not attached to the Ordnance Department, which is merged in the artillery. The ordnance service in the States consist merely of 30 officers of artillery, selected to command the different depots of arms and arsenals of the Union, with 10 superintendents of armories and store-keepers. (*b*)

Major-General Alexander Macomb commands the army at present; and he is allowed 2 aides-de-camp. Besides him there are 2 brigadier-generals, each with one aid-de-camp; and these aides, taken from the subalterns of the line, besides their other duties, perform those of assistant-adjutants-general. Two inspectors-general annually visit the posts of the army; their duty is very severe, when one considers the extent of territory they have to traverse. There are also an adjutant and quarter-master-general, 2 quarter-masters, and 10 assistant-quarter-masters.

The Subsistence Department consists of 1 commissary-general, and 50 assistant-commissaries, taken from the subalterns of the line, with extra pay. There are also 1 paymaster-general, and 14 paymasters; and 1 surgeon-general, 8 surgeons, and 45 assistant-surgeons. (*c*)

It is an extraordinary fact, but not the less true, that nearly one half of the non-commissioned officers and privates of the American army deserts every year. All free white males between the ages of 18 and 35 may be enlisted; 5 feet 6 in. is the standard height, and 12 dollars is the bounty money. According to the spirit of the institutions of the country, all enlistments shall be "voluntary"—that is to say, 24 hours must elapse between the recruit's expressing his wish to enlist and his subscribing the oath and receiving the bounty; and though the period of service is only five years, yet few remain to complete it.

The great extent of territory in the States, with a scanty population, causes wages to be high, and provisions are cheap. Generally speaking then, the most worthless characters enter the army, which consists of a *melange* of English deserters,

Dutch, French, Americans, &c. Five dollars is the monthly pay of a private, and many labourers in the States earn a dollar per day; so that it is obvious there is no great inducement to belong to an army which is held in no estimation by the citizens generally, and has no pension-list or asylum for disabled soldiers. (*d*)

The moral culture of the American soldier is wholly neglected; and in the States attention to this important point is perhaps more necessary than in any other country. Detached as the troops are, in small posts, to overawe the Indians of the north-west and western frontiers, they unavoidably become demoralized, from contact with the wild beings and vagabond hunters, in the midst of whom they live. If the sons of respectable parents could be induced to enter the army at an early age, be retained at a depot of instruction for some time, attention paid to their habits, their moral and religious improvement, then, as they would be made better men, they would become better soldiers, imbibing at the same time patriotic feelings with the prospect of considerable ultimate reward when discharged (and which the States can well afford in the shape of land,) the men would become attached to their service, desertions would be unfrequent, and the army placed on a respectable footing. (*e*)

It is well known that the efficiency of our army is mainly dependent on the character of the non-commissioned officers: if *they* are inadequately paid, competent men will not desire to be promoted. Now the sergeants and corporals of the American army receive a trifle more than the pay of the privates;—consequently, taking into consideration their responsibility and trouble, their office is not in great request. (*f*)

Habits of intemperance are very common in the American army, and, as is to be supposed, almost all crimes committed by the soldiery are to be traced to these fruitful sources of evil.—The intelligent head of the army has, however, this year adopted that admirable regulation of the British service—"giving a compensation in lieu of liquor." From frequent inquiries made on this important subject in the West Indies and in the Canadas, I was at first inclined to believe that the measure was not attended with the benefit expected from it:—thus, in a company of a regiment at Trinidad, I learned that in six months after the compensation was granted, there had been sixty punishments for drunkenness, whereas in the previous six months there had only been twenty; but when the matter comes to be fully investigated, it will be found that old soldiers only gave way to their propensity for liquor, whereas the young recruit will not now acquire a taste for it; and I am convinced that in the course of a few years the health and habits of the troops will be most materially improved by this very judicious regulation. (*g*)

The uniform of the American army is a single-breasted blue coatee, with bars of lace on the collar and cuffs—in the artillery, gold; in the infantry, silver. The trousers are grey; the cap bell-shaped; the feathers white and red for artillery, white and blue for infantry; eagle plate and scales. General and field officers wear epaulettes—all others wings. Captains are distinguished by a chevron on the upper part of the arm; subalterns by one near the cuff. As may be supposed, no great attention is paid to uniformity of dress in the American army—officers wearing forage caps according to their own taste, frock coats variously trimmed, and fancy swords; the favorite one has a hilt like that of the sword which the Prince of Denmark usually wears on the stage.

General Macomb approves highly of the new regulation double-breasted coatee of the British service, with epaulettes for all ranks, and means to adopt it next year; though the citizens think that it is too gaudy for Republicans; however, as it is, they are obliged to tempt the officers by high pay, to remain in the service—a captain receiving 310*l.* per annum; the British, 180*l.* So that a handsome uniform will be an additional inducement to remain in the service. (*h*)

I say that officers are tempted by high pay to remain in the American service, and truly they require it. Stationed for years in the back woods, without society, few of them devoted to the sports of the field; books difficult to be obtained; their duties are far from agreeable, and their situation often most unpleasant. I beg to subjoin a short anecdote illustrative of the nature of the service in America.

A young officer of artillery having just left the Military Academy at West Point, after the peace of 1815, was sent with two other officers, his seniors, and 150 men, to garrison Fort St. Philip, on the Mississippi, below New Orleans, and seated in the midst of interminable forests—dismal swamps—sluggish creeks, teeming with alligators and wild fowl. After a short time the second in command and 50 men had died. The senior officer one morning drew up on parade those who remained, and then in a fit of despair, threw himself in full uniform, from the parapet into the ditch of the fort and was drowned. Shortly after this, General Jackson visited the fort. The survivor received him on landing from the river, proceeded to the ramparts and fired the salute, and then appeared in the hospital as surgeon. After nine months he was ordered to proceed to New Orleans with 10 men; they all died of yellow fever except himself and servant; and the officer ordered to relieve him at Fort St. Philip, inclosed the General his commission. So much for the military experience of a young American artillerist. (*i*)

There are about 50 military posts in the States' forts, bar-

racks, and arsenals; the two former to overawe the negro population, &c.; the latter contain the arms for the regulars and militia. The officers seem to dislike Indian warfare very much; complain of the hardships attending "bush expeditions;" the treachery of the enemy; their ambuscades and surprises, and cruelty to prisoners. There are yearly skirmishes with Indians, which by the way are not made public. (*k*)

I remarked, that in the hot climate of Louisiana, the American soldiers slept two in a bed: their bed stands on wooden frames, which can be easily taken to pieces, and have upper and lower berths. There are no iron bedsteads yet in the States, and consequently their men are far from being as comfortable as ours are in this respect. In the barrack squares in Louisiana, I observed the punishment of hard labour, with a log and chain attached to the foot of the culprit; flogging is also practised; and solitary confinement is often resorted to. (*l*)

There is nothing worthy of remark in the system of drill in the American army; they borrow from the British and French. The officers say, that English deserters, who enter the service, are very *au fait* at drill, and keep themselves and their arms very clean; but that they cannot march with the American soldiers. Now this must be a mistake; for it is a notorious fact, that all Americans will never walk when they can ride in a wagon; they are much disinclined to active sports and pedestrian exercises of any kind; and even the children are never seen to run, or engage in "out of door games," like English boys; so it is impossible that American soldiers can march with British. The extremes of heat and cold are so great in the States, that the people do not sufficiently exercise their limbs.

The American arsenals are very neatly kept, and with very small means; and the superintendents deserve great credit for the order in which they keep their arms, with few assistants allowed them by government. Their cannon are all copied from the British. An American musket is well fabricated, and costs 12 dollars. A new rifle has been introduced this year, called Hall's patent; it loads at the breech, which is elevated for this purpose by touching a spring, when a flask with a double head, one containing powder, the other a magazine of balls, loads it expeditiously. It might be worth while to experiment with this rifle, as it saves the tedious operation of loading with the ramrod; and with a percussion lock, and a light rest in lieu of a ramrod, would (it is suggested) be an improved weapon for the British rifle corps.

There is a branch of the service of the United States which ought not to be passed by without notice, the Topographical. This corps is separated from the engineers, and now constitutes a distinct *bureau*, and its importance is very great, considering the great extent of territory in the States, and the necessity

there is to possess correct geographical outlines of it. A knowledge of the features of a country collected by surveys, paves the way for internal improvements, and facilitates military operations in the event of a war.

Connected with this subject, I beg leave to suggest, that topographical engineers are at present much wanted in the British service ; among other duties, to survey and determine our frontiers in North America, Guiana, (South America,) to complete Maps of some of our West India islands, which have never been accurately surveyed, and for the various duties which the Staff corps used to perform. Officers who have obtained a certificate of the first class from the senior department of the Royal Military College, might be selected as topographical engineers. Possessing valuable colonies in all parts of the world, on the retention of which the prosperity of Britain mainly depends, and her high station among nations, perhaps no country more requires topographical engineers than our own.

I may here mention, that it seems to be the policy of the Americans to isolate the British possessions of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, by extending the Maine frontier to the St. Lawrence. They, with the Russians, are also desirous to exclude us from the shores of the Pacific. The last American maps bring down the Russian territory to meet the American in the north-west, whilst, by right of discovery and treaty, the British have a claim to many hundred miles of sea-coast to the north of the Columbia river, where the climate is ten degrees milder than on the eastern shores of America,—melons ripening in the open air,—and the soil very fertile.

Sometime ago Commodore Biddle was sent with a small American squadron to take possession of certain British posts, belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, on the north bank of the Columbia river, and near its mouth. The British on seeing the American squadron, quietly evacuated the forts. The commodore landed with his men, hoisted the American flag, dismounted the cannon, and placed placards on the trees, stating that 'this was American territory.' They re-embarked in their boats, and had hardly got to their vessels when the British returned, lowered the American flag, hoisted the British, remounted the guns, tore down the placards, and remain in possession of the posts to this day. It will hardly be believed that the Russians, in their usual insidious way, have established themselves on rivers to the south of the Columbia. These gentlemen ought to be watched.

Executing commissions for the Royal Geographical Society, I paid some attention to the boundary question in America, and was anxious to ascertain if the States were constructing any forts on the Maine frontier ; and I found that the only *thing* of the kind they have is a poor specimen of a stockade

at Houlton Town, executed two years ago, and garrisoned by four companies of infantry, and, even as a field-work, it is quite contemptible. I may here remark, that too little attention is paid, in the British service, in the construction of field-works and temporary defences, to the hatchet. General Macomb said he often laughed whilst watching our troops through his glass, in the late war, cutting branches with their bill-hooks, wasting time in making fascines; whilst the Americans had trees down in a short time, abbatis laid, and stout breast-works of logs. There is some truth in this. 'Fas est ab hoste doceri.' One axe in a wooded country is worth twenty bill-hooks.

I spent two days at the Military Academy at West Point, and I beg to make a few remarks on what I saw there. The situation of the Academy is beautiful and romantic. High above the noble Hudson, on a level plateau, and surrounded with mountains of 1000 feet elevation, stand the plain buildings of West Point; three barrack-looking buildings contain the halls of study and sleeping apartments of the 250 cadets; and detached houses, with a row of poplars before them, are occupied by the superintendent, Colonel Thayer, and the professors. On the heights around, and every where commanding the river, are the remains of redoubts and batteries constructed during the Revolutionary war.

Cadets remain at the Military Academy four years; when admitted at fourteen years of age, they are examined in English reading, writing, and arithmetic only; but after six months there is a severe mathematical examination, which many are unable to pass. As at the Royal Military College, there are half yearly examinations at West Point; but these are so strict, and the course in general so severe, that half of those who enter the College are obliged to leave after the first examinations. There is a remarkable difference between the cadets of the Northern and Southern States; the former are generally studious and industrious; the latter, brought up among slaves, are idle and inattentive, so that they are almost all dismissed; consequently, the Academy is not "in good odour" with the planters; for they imagine that favoritism prevails, and that the dismissals are not impartial.

The cadets are divided into four classes for the four years' course. The junior class study the French language grammatically, (but pay no attention to speaking the language,) mathematics, including geometry, trigonometry, algebra, mensuration, and surveying; they are also drilled. The second year: mathematics, including descriptive and analytical geometry, conic sections, fluxions; the French language is continued, and drawing the human figure. The third year: natural philosophy, chemistry, and drawing, or rather copying

landscapes, and topography; and the fourth and last year, the studies are engineering, including the science of artillery, field and permanent fortification, tactics, civil and military architecture, besides chemistry and mineralogy, law and ethics. The cadets intended for the artillery, after leaving West Point, attend the School of Practice at Fortress Monroe, in Virginia, where they see for the first time, the construction of field-works. The West Point cadets are encamped two months in autumn, but then only for the purposes of drill: at that time, about one-fourth of the cadets are allowed to visit their friends, for there is no regular vacation. The uniform of the cadets is a grey coatee, with three rows of brass buttons and black braid; white trousers in summer, and grey in winter.

The cadets are confined to their halls of study for about ten hours per day! They seemed to be very well prepared with their exercises, but had a yellow, unhealthy look, stooped, some wore spectacles, and from October to March they hardly ever move out of doors, or take active exercise; it was really painful to see young men under such a rigorous system. I need hardly have inquired after the health of the cadets; but I did so, and found that from January to March, dyspepsia was very common; and though few die at the establishment, yet I am convinced the seeds of disease are sown there, and that they return to their friends with broken constitutions. As no watch is kept over the cadets at night, some leave their rooms and repair to haunts of dissipation among the hills, known only to themselves, where they meet women of loose character, eat pork and molasses, drink, and chew tobacco,—which last is still an accomplishment of the American youth of all ranks.

It will now be naturally inquired what figure do the cadets, who pass the ordeal of West Point, make in after life—are they distinguished in the walks of science, and do they contribute to the literature of their country? The answer to this is, that they are never heard of after they leave West Point.—A short time ago, certain young officers were sent from the Academy to assist General Bernard to draw up reports for Congress on the national defensive works; and he complained that so far from these officers being of any assistance to him, he was compelled to translate his own French into imperfect English. No attention being paid to English composition at the Academy, the young men could not express themselves intelligibly in their own language; and I imagine from getting a surfeit of mathematics at West Point, they throw aside Legendre and Lacroix the moment they quit the academic groves.(*m*)

A word on the militia of the United States. The system and administration are radically bad, and imperiously call for alteration; in fact, the mere mention of American militia excites ridicule in the citizens themselves. Every citizen between

the ages of 18 and 45, with the exception of surgeons, clergymen, &c. is enrolled in the militia, and they are nominally drilled twelve days every year; but, though they are expected to arm and clothe themselves, it is but few who do either, at least uniformly; and as to the drill, it is a perfect farce. A "muster" in the state of Vermont last summer, may serve as a specimen of the whole. The privates turned out in their usual working dresses—belts and pouches over surtouts, long coats, and round jackets; feathers red, green, and blue, of all sorts and sizes, were stuck in round hats, on the front of some of which was tied the eagle with a string; some had broomsticks for muskets, and others muskets without locks. The band sent forth martial music from seven bass drums, a fife and a fiddle; and the colonel (as usual a tavern keeper,) with a huge broadsword by his side, could not attend to his duties for mixing "gin sling" behind a tree, wherewith to inspirit his gallant troops.

On the 18th of November last, the militia of New York were invited to parade in honour of "Evacuation Day," elegantly so named as the anniversary of the British evacuating the city in the revolutionary war. The militia men, disgusted with the present injudicious system, were determined to try what effect public ridicule would have in causing the legislature to give attention to fitting the people morally and physically for the defence of the country, by an alteration in the militia laws. Accordingly 300 or 400 mock soldiers paraded in one of the principal streets of the city, and "the Invincibles," as they called themselves, were reviewed by a leader dressed like Napoleon, with the addition of small statues of the emperor on his shoulders, green spectacles, and a sword four feet long and a foot broad. The warlike body then marched through the streets to the sound of inspiring airs; but to describe adequately the dress and appearance of the men would be difficult. Caps were of all shapes and colours: one wore a pumpkin with the long leaves of a carrot for a plume; another was distinguished by a chapeau five feet in length, and a cod-fish for a sword; wigs, beards, and false noses, were common; and the coats were of bright scarlet, brown woollen, green baize, deer skin, and split cane. Here was a Highlander in top-boots, and there his Satanic majesty with a pitch-fork and tail: one carried four muskets, and was attired in shaggy goat-skin like Robinson Crusoe; another was half horse, half alligator, or a Kentucky snorter; never before was such an array witnessed; and though this review was entirely burlesque, it may have the effect of producing a thorough reformation in the militia laws, which at present make fops rather than soldiers, dissipate time, lead to scenes of debauchery, and make a mockery of reviews and drills.

Militia officers are elected by their privates by ballot; and to show the "freedom of election," I beg to annex an anecdote:—A French gentleman informed me that last August he arrived in a town on the Ohio, where he saw a crowd assembled at the door of a tavern; he inquired what was the occasion of it, and was told that a lieutenant of militia was desirous of being made a general, and was then treating his friends previous to election. A drunken fellow then staggered up to the Frenchman, and holding a bottle of rum by the neck, demanded, in a threatening voice, "Who are you for, mister,—d—n you, wont you vote for General Twig?" "Pardonnez moi," said Monsieur, "I won't vote for either Gen. Twig or Gen. Wig." "You won't vote for General Twig, eh?" (shaking the bottle at him) —"what for?" "Because," quietly answered the Frenchman, "I have no right to vote at all; I'm not a citizen of the Union." "Oh, that's it—why the d—l did you not say so before. Come, take an anti-fogmatic then;" and they amicably pledged each other in a horn of old Jamaica. "Vote for my man, or else get your head broke!" is the maxim in the west.

To conclude. In reviewing the military system in the States, we find that, owing to the nature of the institutions and habits of the people, it is very defective. The citizens dislike the restraint of discipline; and though the navy is held in estimation by them, from its unexpected successes last war, the army is not viewed with an eye of favour. The Secretary at War, and all attached to the military department, have much trouble to obtain from Congress the necessary supplies;(*n*) and as it is, the scanty armaments in the forts are old and nearly useless, and many of the works themselves in a very dilapidated state. But with all this, having had an opportunity of seeing the greater number of the States, I am convinced that the Americans, being such a clever, shrewd, and intelligent people, (and individually as brave as Britons, being of the same stock,) if they saw a *pressing* necessity for an immediate alteration in the military system, would set about it. Since, however, there is not, at present, the slightest prospect of war, and all are striving to partake of the general prosperity around them, the Americans are indifferent to forming an efficient army. Ere long there may be a dispute with Mexico for the valuable territory of Texas, rapidly settling with American *squatters*. The encroachments of Russia in the north-west may cause American troops to march to the Pacific; and in the course of time, American manufactures, competing with British in foreign markets, may bring about a maritime war with England;—but these two last events are remote, and may not take place during the present generation. The angry feelings of the people of Maine towards British America are not shared by the rest of the Union; and though I heartily dislike a republic, from the effect it has

on the manners of the people, and am persuaded it can only hold together whilst the population is scattered, provisions cheap, and wages high, yet, instead of feeling petty jealousy at the growing prosperity of America, we ought to be proud that so vigorous a scion has proceeded from the noble tree of old England. A.

NOTES.

(*a*) The number of men on the Peace Establishment varies from 5 to 6,000,—but it is important to recollect, that the present formation affords a nucleus on which to arrange an effective establishment, seven or eight times as large: it is, (so to speak) a spring, capable of giving motion to a much more ponderous machinery.

One company of each regiment of artillery is equipped as light artillery by law, but there has never been an appropriation.

Beside the subaltern officers enumerated, one brevet is allowed to each company.

By a recent act of Congress, a regiment of mounted dragoons has been created, destined to act on the western frontier. For its organization see Act of Congress, page 81.

(*b*) The ordnance corps was experimentally merged in the artillery, but has been erected, by an act of Congress, into a separate corps, consisting of 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 2 majors, and 10 captains, with a detail from the line of 20 to 25 subalterns, according to the exigencies of the service. There are two superintendents of armories, and as many military store keepers as the interest of the service may require.

(*c*) There are 1 surgeon general, 8 surgeons, and 55 assistant surgeons.

(*d*) At present, few individuals are enlisted into the service except native Americans, and from the operation of various causes, the character of the soldiers is daily improving. There is a pension for all officers and soldiers who have been wounded in actual service: as inconsiderable as it is, however, it ceases with the life of the pensioner.

(*e*) The moral culture of the soldiers is by no means neglected. There is a chaplain during a greater or less portion of the time, at many of the military posts, although they are not provided for by law. Almost every company in the service has an appropriate library.

(*f*) The act of Congress, by which the Secretary of War is authorized to select ordnance sergeants from the line, not to exceed one to each military post, whose duty it is to take care of arms, &c. is calculated to excite great emulation among the non-commissioned officers. We refer our readers to the Act of Congress, page 80, regulating the pay of non-commissioned officers and privates of the army; by which it appears, that what the writer complains of no longer exists.

(*g*) By a recent regulation of the Secretary of War, the soldiers now in lieu of whiskey, receive a commutation of sugar and coffee. Temperance societies have been extensively established.

(*h*) The uniform here alluded to, with some essential modifications, has lately been adopted by the commanding general of the army.

(*i*) A solitary case, incident to a post which is perhaps the most unhealthy one in the country. The military posts are generally healthy.

(*k*) The forts, properly so called, belong to the system of national defence, and there are none of them whose object is to overawe the negro population.

(*l*) Flogging is not allowed by law, and is scarcely known in the service, at this time.

(*m*) The United States' Military Academy needs no commendation from us. As to the imputation regarding the moral character of cadets, nothing is more untrue, and therefore unjust, than the remarks of the author. He has unblushingly, and in the very face of truth, asserted what is notoriously false. In former years, there was much dissipation at West Point; but under the effective administration of the present superintendent, it has been almost entirely checked; and we hazard nothing in saying, that there are few more moral schools in the world than the Military Academy. The young officers coming from that institution are eminently prepared for usefulness, and are not inferior to the officers of any service, in the knowledge appertaining to their profession.

(*n*) The assertion that the Secretary of War has much trouble in obtaining from Congress the supplies asked for, is not founded on fact.

L.

FROM THE LONDON METROPOLITAN FOR DECEMBER.

STORM AT SEA.

We continued our cruize along the coast, until we had run down into the Bay of Arcapon, where we captured two or three vessels, and obliged many more to run on shore. And here we had an instance how very important it is that a captain of a man of war should be a good sailor, and have his ship in such discipline as to be strictly obeyed by his ship's company. I heard the officers unanimously assert, after the danger was over, that nothing but the presence of mind which was shown by Captain Savage, could have saved the ship and her crew.—We had chased a convoy of vessels to the bottom of the bay: the wind was very fresh when we hauled off, after running them on shore, and the surf on the beach even at that time was so great, that they were certain to go to pieces before they could be got afloat again. We were obliged to double reef the topsails as soon as we hauled to the wind, and the weather looked very threatening. In an hour afterwards, the whole sky was covered with one black cloud, which sunk so low, as nearly to touch our mast heads, and a tremendous sea, which appeared to have risen up almost by magic, rolled in upon us, setting the vessel on a dead lee shore. As the night closed in, it blew a dreadful gale, and the ship was nearly buried with the press of canvass which she was obliged to carry, for had we sea room, we should have been lying to under storm staysails; but we were forced to carry on at all risques, that we might clear off shore. The seas broke over as we lay in the trough, deluging us with water from the forecastle aft, to the binnacles; and very often as the ship descended with a plunge, it was with such force that I really thought she would divide in half with the violence of the shock. Double breechings were rove on the guns, and they were further secured

with tackles, and strong cleats nailed behind the trunnions, for we heeled over so much when we lurched, that the guns were wholly supported by the breechings and tackles, and had one of them broke loose, it must have broke right through the lee side of the ship, and she must have foundered. The captain, first lieutenant, and most of the officers, remained on deck during the whole of the night; and really, what with the howling of the wind, the violence of the rain, the washing of the water about the decks, the working of the chain pumps, and the creaking and groaning of the timbers, I thought that we must inevitably be lost; and I said my prayers at least a dozen times during the night, for I felt it impossible to go to bed. I had often wished out of curiosity, that I might be in a gale of wind, but I little thought it was to have been a scene of this description, or any thing half so dreadful. What made it more appalling was, that we were on a lee shore, and the consultations of the captain and officers, and the eagerness with which they looked out for daylight, told us that we had other dangers to encounter besides the storm. At last, the morning broke, and the look-out man upon the gangway called out, "land on the lee beam." I perceived the master dash his fist against the hammock rails, as if with vexation, and walk away without saying a word, and looking very grave.

"Up, there, Mr. Wilson," said the captain to the second lieutenant, "and see how far the land trends forward, and whether you can distinguish the point." The second lieutenant went up the main rigging, and pointed with his hand to about two points before the beam. "Do you see two hillocks in land?"

"Yes, sir," replied the second lieutenant.

"Then it is so," observed the captain to the master, "and if we weather it, we shall have more sea room. Keep her full, and let her go through the water; do you hear, quartermaster?"

"Aye, aye, sir."

"Thus, and no nearer, my man. Ease her with a spoke or two when she sends; but be careful, or she'll take the wheel out of your hands."

It really was a very awful sight. When the ship was in the trough of the sea, you could distinguish nothing but a waste of tumultuous water; but when she was borne up on the summit of the enormous waves, you then looked down, as it were, upon a low, sandy coast, close to you, and covered with foam and breakers. "She behaves nobly," observed the captain, stepping aft to the binnacle, and looking at the compass; if the wind does not baffle us, we shall weather." The captain had scarcely time to make the observation, when the sails shivered and flapped like thunder. "Up with the helm: what

are you about, quarter-master?" "The wind has headed us, sir," replied the quarter-master, coolly.

The captain and master remained at the binnacle, watching the compass, and when the sails were again full, she had broken off two points, and the point of land was only a little on the lee bow.

"We must wear her round, Mr. Falcon. Hands, wear ship—ready, oh, ready."

"She has come up again," cried the master, who was at the binnacle.

"Hold fast there a minute. How's her head now?"

"N. N. E., as she was before she broke off, sir."

"Pipe, belay," said the captain. "Falcon," continued he, "if she breaks off again, we may have no room to wear; indeed, there is so little room now, that I must run the risk.—Which cable was ranged last night—the best bower?

"Yes, sir."

"Jump down, then, and see it double bitted and stoppered at thirty fathoms. See it well done—our lives may depend upon it.

The ship continued to hold her course good; and we were within half a mile of the point, and fully expected to weather it, when again the wet and heavy sails flapped in the wind, and the ship broke off two points as before. The officers and seamen were aghast, for the ship's head was right on to the breakers. "Luff now, all you can, quarter-master," cried the captain. "Send the men aft directly. My lads, there is no time for words—I am going to *club haul* the ship, for there is no room to wear. The only chance you have of safety, is to be cool, watch my eye, and execute my orders with precision.—Away to your stations for tacking ship. Hands by the best bower anchor. Mr. Wilson attend below with the carpenter and his mates, ready to cut away the cable at the moment that I give the order. Silence there, foie and aft. Quarter-master, keep her full again for stays. Mind you ease the helm down when I tell you." About a minute passed before the captain gave any further orders. The ship had closed to within a quarter of a mile of the beach, and the waves curled and topped around us, bearing us down upon the shore, which presented one continued surface of foam, extending to within half a cable's length of our position, at which distance the enormous waves culminated and fell with the report of thunder. The captain waved his hand in silence to the quarter-master at the wheel, and the helm was put down. The ship turned slowly to the wind, pitching and chopping as the sails were spilling. When she had lost her way, the captain gave the order, "Let go the anchor. We will haul all at once, Mr. Falcon," said the captain. Not a word was spoken, the men

went to the fore-brace, which had not been manned; most of them knew, although I did not, that if the ship's head did not go round the other way, we should be on shore, and among the breakers, in half a minute. I thought at the time that the captain said that he would haul all the yards at once, there appeared to be doubt or dissent on the countenance of Mr. Falcon; and I was afterwards told that he had not agreed with the captain, but he was too good an officer, and knew that there was no time for discussion, to make any remark; and the event proved that the captain was right. At last the ship was head to wind, and the captain gave the signal. The yards flew round with such a creaking noise, that I thought the masts had gone over the side, and the next moment the wind had caught the sails, and the ship, which for a moment or two had been on an even keel, careened over to her gunnel with its force. The captain, who stood upon the weather hammock rails, holding by the main rigging, ordered the helm a-midships, looked full at the sails, and then at the cable, which grew broad upon the weather bow, and held the ship from nearing the shore. At last he cried, "Cut away the cable." A few strokes of the axes were heard, and then the cable flew out of the hawse-hole in a blaze of fire, from the violence of the friction, and disappeared under a huge wave, which struck us on the chess tree, and deluged us with water fore and aft. But we were now on the other tack, the ship regained her way, and we had evidently increased our distance from the land.

"My lads," said the captain to the ship's company, "you have behaved well, and I thank you; but I must tell you honestly, that we have more difficulties to get through. We have to weather a point of the bay on this tack. Mr. Falcon, splice the main brace, and call the watch. How's her head, quarter-master?"

"S. W. by S. Southerly, sir."

"Very well; let her go through the water;" and the captain beckoning to the master to follow him, went down into the cabin. As our immediate danger was over, I went down into the berth to see if I could get any thing for breakfast, where I found O'Brien, and two or three more.

"By the powers, it was as nate a thing as ever I saw done," observed O'Brien; "the slightest mistake as to time or management, and at this moment the flat fish would have been dubbing at our ugly carcases. Peter, you're not fond of flat fish, are you, my boy? We may thank heaven and the captain, I can tell you that, my lads; but now, where's the chart, Robinson. Hand me down the parallel rules and compasses, Peter, they are in the corner of the shelf. Here we are now, a devilish sight too near this infernal point. Who knows how her head is?"

"I do, O'Brien; I heard the quarter-master tell the captain, S. W. by S. Southerly."

"Let me see," continued O'Brien, "variation 2 1-4—lee way —rather too large an allowance of that, I'm afraid; but however, we'll give her 2 1-2 points; the Diomede would blush to make any more, under any circumstances. Here—the compass—now we'll see;" and O'Brien advanced the parallel rule from the compass to the spot where the ship was placed on the chart. "Bother! you see it's as much as she'll do to weather the other point now, on this tack, and that's what the captain meant when he told us we had more difficulty. I could have taken my Bible oath that we were clear of every thing, if the wind held."

"See what the distance is, O'Brien," said Robinson. It was measured, and proved to be thirteen miles. "Only thirteen miles; and if we do weather, we shall do very well, for the bay is deep beyond. It's a rocky point, you see, just by way of variety. Well my lads, I've a piece of comfort for you, any how. It's not long that you'll be kept in suspense, for by one o'clock this day, you'll either be congratulating each other upon your good luck, or you'll be past praying for.—Come, put up the chart, for I hate to look at melancholy prospects; and, steward, see what you can find in the way of comfort. Some bread and cheese, with the remains of yesterday's boiled pork, were put on the table, with a bottle of rum, procured at the time we "spliced the main brace;" but we were all too anxious to eat much, and one by one returned on deck, to see how the weather was, and if the wind at all favored us. On deck the superior officers were in conversation with the captain, who had expressed the same fear that O'Brien had in our berth. The men, who knew what they had to expect—for this sort of intelligence is soon communicated through a ship—were assembled in knots, looking very grave, but at the same time not wanting in confidence. They knew that they could trust to the captain, as far as skill or courage could avail them, and sailors are too sanguine to despair, even at the last moment. As for myself, I felt such admiration for the captain, after what I had witnessed that morning, that whenever the idea came over me, that in all probability I should be lost in a few hours, I could not help acknowledging how much more serious it was that such a man should be lost to his country. I do not intend to say that it consoled me; but it certainly made me still more regret the chances with which we were threatened.

Before twelve o'clock, the rocky point which we so much dreaded was in sight, broad on the lee bow; and if the low sandy coast appeared terrible, how much more did this, even at a distance: the black masses of rock, covered with foam,

which each minute dashed up in the air higher than our lower mast heads. The captain eyed it for some minutes in silence, as if in calculation.

"Mr. Falcon," said he, at last, "we must put the mainsail on her."

"She never can bear it, sir."

"She *must* bear it," was the reply. "Send the men aft to the main sheet. See that careful men attend the buntlines."

The mainsail was set, and the effect of it upon the ship was tremendous. She careened over so that her lee channels were under the water, and when pressed by a sea, the lee side of the quarter deck and gangway were afloat. She now reminded me of a goaded and fiery horse, mad with the stimulus applied; not rising as before, but forcing herself through whole seas, and dividing the waves, which poured in one continued torrent from the forecastle down upon the decks below. Four men were secured to the wheel—the sailors were obliged to cling, to prevent being washed away—the ropes were thrown in confusion to leeward—the shot rolled out of the lockers, and every eye was fixed aloft, watching the masts, expected every moment to go over the side. A heavy sea struck us on the broad side, and it was some moments before the ship appeared to recover herself; she reeled, trembled, and stopped her way as if it had stupified her. The first lieutenant looked at the captain, as if to say, "This will not do." "It is our only chance," answered the captain, to the appeal. That the ship went faster through the water, and held a better wind, was certain; but just before we arrived at the point, the gale increased in force. "If any thing starts we are lost, sir," observed the first lieutenant again.

"I am perfectly aware of it," replied the captain, in a calm tone; "but as I said before, and you must now be aware, it is our only chance. The consequence of any carelessness or neglect in the fitting and securing of the rigging, will be felt now; and this danger, if we escape it, ought to remind us how much we have to answer for if we neglect our duty.—The lives of a whole ship's company may be sacrificed by the neglect or incompetence of an officer when in harbor. I will pay you the compliment, Falcon, to say, that I feel convinced that the masts of this ship are as secure as knowledge and attention can make them."

The first lieutenant thanked the captain for his good opinion, and hoped it would not be the last compliment which he paid him.

"I hope not too; but a few minutes will decide the point."

The ship was now within two cables' lengths of the rocky point; some few of the men I observed to clasp their hands, but most of them were silently taking off their jackets, and

kicking off their shoes, that they might not lose a chance of escape provided the ship struck. "T'will be touch and go indeed, Falcon," observed the captain, (for I had clung to the belaying pins, close to them, for the last half hour, that the mainsail had been set.) "Come aft, you and I must take the helm. We shall want *nerve* there, and only there, now."

The captain and first lieutenant went aft, and took the fore spokes of the wheel, and O'Brien, at a sign made by the captain, laid hold of the spokes behind him. An old quartermaster kept his station at the fourth. The roaring of the seas on the rocks, with the howling of the wind, were dreadful; but the sight was more dreadful than the noise. For a few moments I shut my eyes, but anxiety forced me to open them again. As near as I could judge, we were not twenty yards from the rocks, at the time that the ship passed abreast of them. We were in the midst of the foam, which boiled around us; and as the ship was driven nearer to them, and careened with the wave, I thought that our mainyard arm would have touched the rock; and at this moment a gust of wind came on, which laid the ship on her beam-ends, and checked her progress through the water, while the accumulated noise was deafening. A few moments more the ship dragged on, another wave dashed over her and spent itself upon the rocks, while the spray was dashed back from them, and returned upon the decks. The main rock was within ten yards of her counter, when another gust of wind laid us on our beam-ends, the foresail and mainsail split, and were blown clean out of the bolt ropes; the ship righted, trembling fore and aft. I looked astern; the rocks were to windward on our quarter, and we were safe. I thought at the time, that the ship, relieved of her courses, and again lifting over the waves, was not a bad simile of the relief felt by us all at that moment; and like her, we trembled as we panted with the sudden reaction, and felt the removal of the intense anxiety which oppressed our breasts.

The captain resigned the helm, and walked aft to look at the point, which was now broad on the weather quarter. In a minute or two, he desired Mr. Falcon to get new sails up and bend them, and then went below to his cabin. I am sure it was to thank God for our deliverance: I did most fervently, not only then, but when I went to my hammock at night.—We were now comparatively safe; in a few hours completely so; for strange to say, immediately after we had weathered the rocks, the gale abated, and before morning we had a reef out of the topsails. It was my forenoon watch, and perceiving Mr. Chucks, on the forecastle, I went forward to him, and asked him what he thought of it.

"Thought of it, sir!" replied he. "Why I always think bad of it, when the elements won't allow my whistle to be

heard; and I consider it hardly fair play. I never care if we are left to our own exertions; but how is it possible for a ship's company to do their best, when they cannot hear the boatswain's pipe? However, God be thanked, nevertheless, and make better Christians of us all? As for that carpenter, he is mad: just before we weathered the point, he told me that it was just the same 27,600 and odd years ago. I do believe that on his death-bed, (and he was not far from a very hard one yesterday,) that he will tell us how he died so many thousand years ago of the same complaint. And that gunner of ours is a fool. Would you believe it, Mr. Simple, he went crying about the decks, 'O my poor guns! what will become of them, if they break loose!' He appeared to consider it of no consequence if the ship and ship's company were all lost, provided that his guns were safe landed on the beach. 'Mr. Dispart,' said I, at last, 'allow me to observe in the most delicate way in the world, that you're a d——d old fool." You see, Mr. Simple, it's the duty of an officer to generalize, and be attentive to parts, in consideration of the safety of the whole. I look after my anchors and cables, as I do after the rigging; not that I care for any of them in particular, but because the safety of a ship depends upon her being well found. I might just as well cry because we sacrificed an anchor and cable yesterday morning, to save the ship from going on shore."

"Very true, Mr. Chucks," replied I.

"Private feeling," continued he, "must always be sacrificed for public service. As you know, the lower deck was full of water, and all our cabins and chests were afloat; but I did not think then about my shirts; and look at them now, all blowing out in the fore rigging, without a particle of starch left in the collars or the frills. I shall not be able to appear as an officer ought to do for the whole of the cruize."

As he said this, the cooper, going forward, passed by him and jostled him in passing. "Beg pardon, sir," said the man, "but the ship lurched."

"The ship lurched, did it?" replied the boatswain, who I am afraid was not in the best of humors about his wardrobe.—"And pray, Mr. Cooper, why has heaven granted you two legs, with joints atthe knees, except to enable you to counteract the horizontal deviation? Do you suppose they were meant for nothing but to work round a cask with? Hark, sir, did you take me for a post to scrub your pig's hide against? Allow me just to observe, Mr. Cooper—just to insinuate, that when you pass an officer, it is your duty to keep at a respectable distance, and not to soil his clothes with your rusty iron jacket. Do you comprehend me sir; or will this make you recollect it in future?" The rattan was raised, and descend-

ed in a shower of blows, until the cooper made his escape into the head. "There, take that, you contaminating, stave-dubbing, gimblet-carrying quintessence of a bung-hole! I beg your pardon, Mr. Simple, for interrupting the conversation, but when duty calls we must obey."

"Very true, Mr. Chucks. It's now striking seven bells, and I must call the master—so good bye."

A few days afterwards, a cutter joined us from Plymouth, with orders for the frigate to proceed forthwith to Gibraltar, where we should learn our destination. We were all very glad of this; for we had quite enough of cruizing in the Bay of Biscay; and as we understood, that we were to be stationed in the Mediterranean, we hoped to exchange gales of wind and severe weather for fine breezes and a bright sky.—The cutter brought out our letters and newspapers. I never felt more happy than I did when I found one put into my hands. It is necessary to be far from home and friends, to feel the real delight of receiving a letter. I went down into the most solitary place in the steerage, that I might enjoy it without interruption. I cried with pleasure before I opened it; but I cried a great deal more with grief, after I had read the contents; for my eldest brother, Tom, was dead of a typus fever. Poor Tom! when I called to mind what tricks he used to play me—how he used to borrow my money and never pay me—and how he used to thrash me, and make me obey him, because he was my eldest brother,—I shed a torrent of tears at his loss; and then I reflected how miserable my poor mother must be, and I cried still more.

"What's the matter, spooney?" said O'Brien, coming up to me. "Who has been licking you now?"

"O nobody," replied I; "but my eldest, brother, Tom, is dead, and I have only one other, about three years old."

"Well, Peter, I dare say that your brother was a very good brother; but I'll tell you a secret. When you've lived long enough to have a beard to scrape at, you'll know better than to make a fuss about an elder brother. But you're a good, innocent boy just now, so I won't thrash you for it. Come, dry your eyes, Peter, and never mind it. We'll drink his health and long life to him after supper, and then never think any more about it."

I was very melancholy for a few days; but it was so delightful running down the Portuguese and Spanish coasts, the weather was so warm, and the sea so smooth, that I am afraid I forgot my brother's death, sooner than I ought to have done; but my spirits were cheered up, and the novelty of the scene prevented me from thinking. Every one, too, was so gay and happy, that I could not well be otherwise. In a fortnight we anchored in Gibraltar Bay, and the ship was stripped

to refit. There was so much duty to be done, that I did not like to ask to go on shore. Indeed, Mr. Falcon had refused some of my messmates, and I thought it better not to ask, although I was very anxious to see a place which was considered so extraordinary. One afternoon, I was looking over the gangway as the people were at supper, and Mr. Falcon came up to me and said, "Well, Mr. Simple, what are you thinking of?" I replied, touching my hat, that I was wondering how they had cut out the solid rock into galleries, and that they must be very curious.

"That is to say, that you are very curious to see them.—Well, then, since you have been very attentive to your duty, and have not asked to go on shore, I will give you leave to go to-morrow morning, and stay till gun-fire."

I was very much pleased at this, as the officers had a general invitation to dine with the mess, and all who could obtain leave being requested to come, I was enabled to join the party. The first lieutenant had excused himself on the plea of there being so much to attend to on board; but most of the gun-room officers and some of the midshipmen obtained leave. We walked about the town and fortifications until dinner-time, and then we proceeded to the barracks. The dinner was very good, and we were all very merry; but after the desert had been brought in, I slipped away with a young ensign, who took me all over the galleries and explained every thing to me, which was a much better way of employing my time than as the others did, which the reader will acknowledge. I was at the sally-port before gun-fire—the boat was there, but no officers made their appearance. The gun fired, the drawbridge was hauled up, and I was afraid that I should be blamed; but the boat was not ordered to shove off, as it was waiting for commissioned officers. About an hour afterwards, when it was quite dark, the sentry pointed his arms and challenged a person advancing, with "Who comes there?"—"Naval officer, drunk on a wheel-barrow," was the reply, in a loud singing voice. Upon which the sentry recovered his arms, singing in return "Pass, Naval officer, drunk on a wheel-barrow—and all's well!" and then appeared a soldier in his fatigue dress, wheeling down the third lieutenant in a wheel barrow, so tipsy that he could not stand or speak. Then the sentry challenged again, and the answer was, "Another Naval officer, drunk on a wheel-barrow," upon which the sentry replied as before. "Pass, another Naval officer, drunk on a wheel-barrow—and all's well." This was my friend O'Brien, almost as bad as the third lieutenant; and so they continued for ten minutes, challenging and passing, until they wheeled down the remainder of the party, with the exception of the second lieutenant, who walked arm in arm with the officer

who brought down the order for lowering the drawbridge. I was much shocked, for I considered it very disgraceful; but I afterwards was told, which certainly admitted of some excuse, that the mess were notorious for never permitting any of their guests to leave the table sober. They were all safely put into the boat, and I am glad to say the first lieutenant was in bed and did not see them; but I could not help acknowledging the truth of an observation made by one of the men, as the officers were handed into the boat, "I say, Bill, if *them* were *we*, what a precious twisting we should get to-morrow at six bells!"

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

UNITED STATES DRAGOONS.

Too much praise cannot be bestowed on Congress, for the very handsome and liberal manner in which they have provided for the formation of a regiment of dragoons. The act for that purpose, displays a better knowledge of the true interests of the country, than is generally shown by our legislators; who are not much in the habit of regarding the army and its wants, with a very favourable eye. That such a corps was much needed, will be seen by every one, who is either acquainted with the nature of our western frontier, or with the absolute requirements of a complete army. The repeated recommendations which have been made from time to time, by the different officers of the general staff, for the formation of a regiment of cavalry, all tend to show, that it is worse than useless to think of acting against the powerful tribes of the west and south-west, with any other description of force. Even the Indians on the north-western frontier, although fighting on foot, have a decided advantage over the common infantry soldier, both on account of the lightness of their equipment, and their native habits of activity and enterprise. The war of last summer showed very clearly, the impossibility of succeeding against the Indians with infantry alone. March after march was made by the regular troops, without coming in contact with the enemy: and it was only after forced marches of the most harassing description, that he was finally overtaken and brought to an engagement.

As a constituent part of a complete army, or even of a corps d'armée, they are as indispensable as for the purposes above named. A perfect army should possess at least, a *nucleus corps* of every arm used in active service, by which a knowledge of its duties might be communicated in time of need to

corps of the like description. Ever since the peace of 1815, we have been destitute of dragoons; and what is the consequence? Why, that there are probably not twenty officers in the service, who are at all acquainted with the duties of cavalry.

With respect to the appointments which *have been* made in the dragoons, although they may occasion heart-burnings to many of the older officers of the service, still as military usage and propriety have not, with but one exception, been violated, I shall say nothing concerning them at present. My object, in the remarks which follow, will be to show the manifest injustice to the army at large, in perfecting the organization of the dragoons, by the selection of such officers of the rangers, as may be deemed qualified for the service. It may be said, and with great truth, that a very few only of the rangers *are* qualified, and that this discretionary regulation is of such a nature, that not more than two or three *can* be appointed from the corps. I say, that the appointment of a single one of them to the dragoons, would not only be an injury to the army, but an absolute infringement of their implied rights. This language may appear too strong to those who are not acquainted with all the facts in the case; but if we look a little into the claims of the two classes of candidates, viz: officers of the army, and officers of the rangers; we shall be able to form a more correct opinion on the subject. Nineteen vacancies still exist in the dragoons; were they to be filled from the army, there would probably be three times the number of applicants. This being the case, we should have nearly sixty candidates, who have served their country from ten to twenty years, from the time of their entrance into the Military Academy up to the present moment,—and what is the nature of the service they have performed? After running the gauntlet of the Academy, wading through text books innumerable, hourly exposed through boyish freaks, or youthful indiscretions, to be dismissed, and perhaps disgraced for life; they graduate. The scene changes; and they find themselves transported to some frontier post, destitute of society, deprived of books, exposed to the diseases of a strange and sickly climate, surrounded by the wily Indian, and in some cases, cut off for whole months from all communication or correspondence, both with their friends and the whites of the nearest settlements.

Moreover they are liable to be, and frequently are, ordered out against the restless tribes by which they are surrounded: and although their lives are at the service of their country, either for a savage or civilized warfare, yet the idea of being scalped and mutilated, is not among their pleasantest reflections. Such is a faint outline of their services; let us look a little into their qualifications. Independently of the valuable military knowledge obtained at the Academy, few persons gra-

duate from that Institution, without acquiring feelings of the most liberal and national description; without feeling their love of country growing with their growth, and strengthening with their strength, by the private ties which attach them to all parts of the union. To use the language of the last "Board of Visiters"—"The industrious and regular habits, and the scientific qualifications which are required there, in prosecuting the prescribed course of study, so pre-eminently fit the graduate for military service, over others who have not had the same advantages, that it is difficult to believe any citizen could be associated with them in inferior commands, without such a feeling of inferiority, as to make him dissatisfied with himself."—The graduate, on account of being attached to his regiment as a brevet, belongs to no company permanently, and is ordered about wherever his services may be needed, in the chain of posts of his regiment. He serves as a brevet from two to three years, and sometimes longer, before he receives his commission as a second lieutenant. Should he belong to the Infantry, (where his chance for promotion is the best,) it will be fifteen years, and more probably twenty, before he is promoted to a captaincy. During all this period he has time and opportunities to learn his duties thoroughly, as he is often entrusted with the command of posts, and important positions, garrisoned by two or three companies. In order to become a good cavalry officer, he has no part of his duty to learn, but what relates to the cavalry usages and tactics, that is, to be an accomplished officer of his arm. We will here leave him for the present, and investigate the qualifications of the ranger. But how is this to be done? In what manner have the officers of this corps merited the especial favour of the government? I will not say, that one or two of them were not engaged in the last Indian war, and that they did not there distinguish themselves; but the regular troops were also there, and its *officers* also distinguished *themselves*. The greater part of the ranger officers were employed, during the war, in organizing their corps, which was not completed until the campaign was over. On what, then, do these gentlemen found their claims to promotion? Is it on account of superior military skill: long services: distinguished conduct: or a thorough knowledge of Indian customs and warfare? They cannot lay claim to any of these, excepting perhaps the last; and there are many regular officers who have seen hardly any thing but Indians since they first joined their regiments, and who are quite as able to cope with them as any of the frontier settlers. If there *is* any reason under heaven, why the officers of the rangers should be appointed from the walks of private life to commands in *their* corps, and afterwards transferred to the dragoons, thereby ranking officers of twenty years' standing and upwards, I, for one, have not yet

been able to discover it. The idea, that they will make better cavalry officers, from having rode up and down the frontier once or twice, is too absurd to be entertained for a moment; and as to discipline, why! it is a perfect farce.

The four troops of dragoons now organized, are officered from the several regiments of infantry; should the six remaining troops be filled up, either wholly or in part, from the rangers, would there be any thing like esprit du corps existing in the regiment? I should think not. I should think, that if the officers of the rangers were not on good terms *now*, with the regular officers, that the situation of both, would be doubly unpleasant when thrown into the same corps: and unless esprit du corps does exist, continual bickerings and heart-burnings will take place; disgust will succeed to jealousy, and discipline and efficiency, as a matter of course, will be left to take care of themselves.

It may be asked by some: why not appoint respectable citizens then, since you object so much to the rangers? I answer, that allowing them the *right* common to all, viz: eligibility to all offices under the government, that their title stops here: since they possess in this no higher claim than the regular officer, who is equally a citizen, where his rights are concerned; but when we name his services and qualifications, no one can hesitate for a moment which to choose. It might also be added by some, that there are citizens, holding commissions in the militia cavalry, who would make good dragoon officers. But I can safely assert, as a general truth, that the knowledge possessed by these gentlemen, very seldom extends beyond the beauty of their uniforms, or the paces of their chargers. No, no; the idea that the faithful servants of the public are to be deprived of rights, which are theirs by every principle of reason and justice, is too preposterous to be entertained for a moment, in a government where *merit* is especially protected and encouraged.

The officers of the army serve faithfully and patiently in the grades in which they happen to be, reposing confidence in the good faith of the government, that their services will not be overlooked, should any thing unusual occur, which might properly benefit them. They are emphatically the creatures of hope. No sooner does the prospect of a new corps present itself to their minds, than immediately all eyes are strained, all ears are opened, to see and hear the chances held out for promotion. Their slumbers are haunted by dreams of rank and distinction; the sure reward for all their privations and hardships. Already are they, in fancy, ensconced in the saddle of a major, or exchanging the stiff title of lieutenant, for the easy and sweet sounding address of a captain.

Higher than this, their modest ambition does not allow them

to aspire. But, alas! time soon shows them that their castles are all built in Spain; that the upstart of a day is to rank the veteran of years, and that they must continue to jog on, the same dull round; rising step by step, and being risen leap by leap, as often as their hopes are excited for promotion, by the formation of new corps. R.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

A VISIT TO ATHENS.

Some few years ago when the U. S. Frigate ——, visited Athens, a parcel of reefers, anxious to gratify their classical taste, and to examine the ruins of this once magnificent city, obtained permission to go on shore.

A visit to the Purser, seasoned with a little soft soap and a good deal of persuasion, procured the most necessary article, money, but the means of locomotion were wanting. To walk was out of the question, the distance, six miles, precluded the idea; so it was decided *nem. con.* that we should ride. We found ourselves in much the same situation as a vessel that has hove up her anchor with her sails unbent.

In this emergency it was deemed advisable to call a council of all hands, and accordingly we all mustered down in the half deck, to decide upon the ways and means of carrying into effect the resolution that we had just passed. Deep and anxious was the conference, and we were about breaking up in despair, when it was suddenly remembered that the Captain had ordered horses to be in readiness on the landing early next morning, and our convention separated with the determination of weathering the Captain out of his horses. We reported to the 1st Luff over night, called up the Mess boy, and strongly enforced the necessity of an early breakfast, by sundry gentle exhortations, accompanied with a glass of grog, which was a never-failing means of securing his hearty co-operation. For the credit of the Navy, I must say, that this was before the temperance societies had made such a wonderful reformation in the morals of the seamen; or doubtless the reward of having a cup of coffee a little earlier than usual, would of itself have been a sufficient incentive to much greater exertion than was required in the present instance.

As Napoleon said of the Austrians, so said I of the opposition party, they knew not the value of time, by which ignorance Capt. —— was weathered, and Mr. W. was left to walk, which perhaps was less to be regretted, as he is quite a pedestrian.

We got on shore early, picked out the best horses, and scampered off, as if borne on the wings of the wind. Sailors, perhaps with some truth, are said to be hard riders. A sudden transition from the stern, nay sometimes harsh, discipline of a man of war, to a perfect control of one's own actions, and in a foreign port to a sole dependence on one's own resources, creates a fund of animal spirits that, when on horseback, is apt to vent itself in hard riding.

Athens soon hove in sight, and we shortened sail preparatory to entering this city of clay walls, mud houses, and magnificent remains, which, however, I have no intention of describing, since able pens have already done so.

After visiting all the other antiquities of note, we ascended the hill on which is situated the Parthenon, at present a fortress commanding the city. Passing through three or four gates, we at last got a view of this interesting temple ; B. was struck with awe at its appearance, and while imagining Athens in all her glory spread beneath his feet, he was roused from his reverie by the voices of his companions, and seeing only clay built houses where magnificent edifices once had been, he burst into tears, and, repeating the only latin lines he at the time remembered

"Tytyre tu patulæ recubans sub tegmine fagi, "

fainted away. We could not be less sensitive, and exclaiming, hear, there, all you reefers; see what Athens is, behold what Athens was; stand by to weep ! All ready ? All ready, was the reply ; stand by, Wail ! and an overpowering burst of grief apprised the Greeks how they were fallen from their high estate.

We now proceeded to collect specimens, and while knocking off the best pieces, we could not restrain our tears at the devastation that travellers had committed. Each one having loaded himself according to his fancy, with large or small bits of marble, we prepared to descend.

About twenty soldiers, armed to the teeth, had assembled at the principal gate, and having closed it, swore by the beard of the prophet, and the houris of his paradise, that we should have no egress until they had levied a contribution. There were eight or ten in our party ; we tried bullying, entreating, commanding, all to no purpose ; some said, that by submitting, we should encourage robbery, and therefore incur half its guilt, and determined to remain until doomsday. In this dilemma one of the soldiers said that he was a servant of the Aga and would procure our release ; upon which his friends let him out. Having spent a most clamorous hour of rage, one of the party came to the conclusion that time was more precious than money ; and having accordingly paid, we were permitted to descend, very much to the dissatisfaction of one or two, who scorned to purchase liberty upon such ignoble terms ; but they

did not, however, insist upon remaining to retrieve their lost self-esteem. Remembering that Richard cœur de Lion having ventured in a foreign country, was placed in the same situation as ourselves, the precedent of that great warrior gradually consoled us. Soon after our liberation we met the pretended servant of the governor, who demanded payment for his important services, which was rather uncourteously refused, on the plea that we could carry our money without any inconvenience whatever; but that whenever it became oppressive he should be allowed the surplus. As his English was not more intelligible than our Greek, the above dialogue was carried on by signs. Having paid magnificently for a miserable dinner, at a wretched tavern, we mounted our steeds and prepared to decamp; but a man had seized the bridles of every horse and was deaf to our entreaties to let them go. The tavern had gates, which were shut in our faces, and we were again prisoners. After a long palaver, in which many unkind expressions were used without effect, I fortunately recollected that Demosthenes has said, Action is the soul of Eloquence; and supposing that this must be known in Athens, if any where, I dismounted and anointed the face of my hostler with my fist, thus proving by a striking illustration what before I had some doubts of. This produced an explanation, which by the help of a little French I managed to understand, that we must pay for the horses in Athens, which was accordingly done, after the charitable conclusion that honest men would have had more confidence. Again the gates were opened, when the servant of the governor rushed forward and closed them. This time we got off without paying, and we left the city with vows that, never more should we enter a gate in Athens:—even to this time I cannot visit a garden without putting my hands on both pockets. R.

CIRCULAR.

NAVY DEPARTMENT, Feb. 23, 1833.

EXAMINATION OF MIDSHIPMEN.

A Board for the Examination of Midshipmen, whose warrants bear date prior to the 1st of January, 1828, will be convened at Baltimore, on the first Monday in May next.

It is expected that all who are entitled to an examination under the regulations of the Department, will attend at the above mentioned time and place, and report to Commodore JACOB JONES, President of the Board.

LEVI WOODBURY.

VESSELS OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY IN COMMISSION,

March, 1833, *their Rates, Stations, Commanders, &c.*

NAMES.	RATES.	COMMANDERS.	FIRST LIEUTENANTS.	SURGEONS.	PURSERS.
Mediterranean.					
D. T. Patterson, Commodore.					
United States	44	J. B. Nicolson	W. E. McKenney	W. Turk	J. N. Todd
Brandywine	44	James Renshaw	J. L. Saunders	B. Washington	W. Sinclair
Constellation	36	G. C. Read	John Rudd	M. Morgan	Josiah Colston
John Adams	18	P. F. Voorhees	E. Ridgeway	G. R. B. Horner	E. T. Dunn
West Indies.					
J. D. Henley, Commodore.					
Vandalia	18	George Budd	Joel Abbot	John A. Kearney	Dudley Walker
St. Louis	18	John T. Newton	Charles T. Platt	A. A. Adee	G. C. Cooper
Grampus	12	Joseph Smoot	Arthur Lewis	Wm. M. Woods	
Shark	12	Wm. Boerum		J. Brinckerhoff	
Porpoise	12	J. M. McIntosh	Hampton Westcott	Dan'l C. McLeod	John S. Punch
Coast of Brazil.					
M. T. Woolsey, Commodore.					
Warren	18	Benj. Cooper	Wm. S. Walker	Peter Christie	J. N. Hambleton
Lexington	18	Isaac McKeever	Joseph Myers	Robert J. Dodd	A. J. Watson
Peacock	18	D. Geisinger	R. B. Cunningham	Benajah Ticknor	F. B. Stockton
Enterprize	12	S. W. Downing	John R. Coxe	George Blackwell	
Boxer	12	Wm. F. Shields	Thomas T. Craven	A. E. Kennedy	F. B. Stockton
Pacific.					
John Downes, Commodore.					
Potomac	44	John Downes	Irvine Shubrick	Samuel Jackson	W. A. Slacum
Falmouth	18	F. H. Gregory	Thomas Dornin	W S W Ruschenberger	McK. Buchanan
Dolphin	12	John C. Long	Wm. M. Glendy	Cornelius Moore	
Charleston, S. C. Station.					
J. D. Elliott, Commodore.					
Natchez	18	J. P. Zantzinger	D. G. Farragut	Samuel Moseley	Samuel P. Todd

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

Sloop Vandalia, Capt. Budd, at Matanzas, 23d Feb. to sail next day for Key West.

Sloop Peacock, Capt. Geisinger, arrived at Manilla 1st Oct.—all well—to proceed to Canton about the 1st November.

Schr. Shark, Lieut. Com'g. Boerum, sailed from Matanzas 14th Feb. for the coast of Colombia and Central America.

Schr. Porpoise, Lieut. Com'g. McIntosh, arrived at the Island of St. Thomas 19th Feb. 28 days from Mesurado, and 19 from the Coast of Africa —to sail on the 25th via Cuba, to join the squadron.

Schr. Enterprize, Lieut. Com'g. Downing, with Com. Woolsey on board, arrived at Rio Janeiro on the 6th Jan. last from Bahia. Sailed from Rio for the river La Plata on the 23d January.

The U. S. ship Warren, Capt. Cooper, was at Rio Janeiro, on the 30th January.

The U. S. ship Lexington, Capt. McKeever, sailed from Montevideo for Buenos Ayres, on the 19th Jan.—all well.

ORDER, *No.* 15.

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, March 11, 1833.

I....Colonel Henry Dodge, of the United States Dragoons, will continue in command of the Battalion of Mounted Rangers, and will now repair to the frontiers; thence, as soon as circumstances will permit, he will proceed to inspect the several companies of the Battalion, and see that they be prepared and equipped agreeably to law; and that they be held in readiness for any active service which may be required of them, until relieved by companies of the regular cavalry.

II....Lieutenant Colonel Stephen W. Kearny will superintend the recruiting for the Regiment; and the several company officers, whose appointments have been announced in general order No. 14, will report to him for orders and recruiting instructions. Lieut. Col. Kearny, until further orders, will be stationed at Jefferson Barracks; he will establish as many recruiting stations as he may judge necessary, and at such places, within the interior, as may be deemed most likely to recruit healthy, active, respectable men of the country, being native citizens of the United States, not under twenty nor over thirty-five years of age; and whose size, figure, and early pursuits in life, best qualify them for the duties and active service of mounted soldiers.

III....The Lieutenant Colonel, as superintendent, and all officers employed in recruiting for the Regiment of Dragoons, will strictly observe, and be governed by the established recruiting regulations; and the monthly returns, muster and descriptive rolls, reports, &c. will be regularly made, and be transmitted to the Adjutant General of the Army.

IV....Jefferson Barracks is the station designated for the concentration of the recruits enlisted for the Dragoons, at which post the Regiment will be organized by the field officers, under such instructions as they may receive from the General-in-Chief.

V....The General-in-Chief hopes that it is unnecessary to remind the officers appointed to the Regiment now ordered to be raised, of the necessity of devoting their undivided attention to the important service in which they are about to enter—but he would remark, that the President

expects every officer will repair to his post without delay, and that all will immediately assume their respective duties, and proceed with alacrity in the discharge of them; and that the Regiment will be recruited, organized, instructed and equipped for service in the field, by the earliest day practicable.

VI....The Head Quarters of the UNITED STATES REGIMENT OF DRAGOONS, are established at Jefferson Barracks.

Major Richard B. Mason will report for orders and instructions to Lt. Col. Kearny.

BY ORDER OF MAJOR GENERAL MACOMB,
R. JONES, ADJUTANT GENERAL.

GENERAL INTELLIGENCE.

HONORABLE LIBERALITY.—The Officers and Crew of the U. States Schooner Experiment have made a donation of Eighty Dollars for the relief of the sufferers by the late fire in Charleston, South Carolina.

OCEAN PHENOMENA.—A naval friend, of high respectability and intelligence, who has seen in a recent number of the Journal, an account of a singular ball of fire, which fell on board the ship Sir Edward Hamilton, has given us the annexed extract from the Journal of a passenger on board the ship Pactolus, Captain GEORGE WILSON, while on a passage from Valparaiso to Marblehead, Massachusetts:—

"After a succession of heavy gales from the time we sailed from Valparaiso, till we were nearly up with Cape Horn, in which we lost our boat, &c. &c., and while in the act of taking in a close reefed foresail, having scudded her under that sail as long as a due regard for the safety of the ship would allow—at about 11 o'clock, A. M., we were enveloped for a few seconds in almost total darkness by a large black cloud from which came wind and hail, either of which was sufficient to take a person off his feet, provided he had hold of nothing; out of this cloud came a ball of fire, about the size of a 32lb. shot. It descended to within three or four feet of the long boat, where it was seen by every person on board, previous to its explosion, which was several seconds after its first appearance. The report of this non-descript thing, was as loud as that of four or five sharp muskets fired together. It had the effect to knock down nearly every man on deck—without, however, injuring any of them, if I except the injury received from the fright, which was *almost* death. The air was sulphurous for some time after the bursting of the ball. The chief mate was the first who came to his senses, and observing that the men were, from fear, unable to attend to the duty of the ship, he called out 'Come on! 'tis only a Cape Horn *snow ball!*'

I cannot describe the effect it had upon me, better than by comparing it with a severe shock of an electric machine—to which it was very similar. Its effect upon the chief mate was, he said, as if an immense weight was pressing him down, and I think he remarked at the same time, that he had once been struck with lightning and that the sensation was similar. No person on board (and we had some old, very old 'salts,') had ever witnessed any thing of the kind before. It left no trace of its having come on board, except upon our memories, and from mine I am certain it will never be erased."—*Providence Journal.*

RESOURCES OF THE EUROPEAN POWERS.—A late number of the London Courier contains a comparative statement of the means and resources of the Great Powers of Europe immediately affected by the hostilities between Holland on the one side, and England and France

on the other. The conclusion drawn by the Courier from the statement is, that as a naval and defensive power, Great Britain stands predominant, but that as a military aggressor on the continent, she is powerless. The population of Russia is about 60 millions, Austria 33, Prussia, 13, France, 33, Great Britain, 24. Russia is supposed to have soldiers, of all sorts, throughout her wide spread dominions, 600,000, Austria 350,000, Prussia 250,000. France 400,000, Great Britain, 110,000. The total number of vessels of war in the possession of Russia, of all descriptions, is 126, Austria 72, Prussia, 2, France, 320, Great Britain, 604, viz:—

	Ships of the Line.	Frigates.	Other Kinds.
Russia, has	46	30	50
Austria,	3	8	61
Prussia,	2	—	—
France,	60	53	207
G. Britain,	162	118	324

The disposable revenue of Russia, after paying the interest of the national debt, is £11,000,000, Austria 9, Prussia 6 ½, France 28, Great Britain 26.—National Debt of Russia, 55,000,000, Austria, 60, Prussia 28, France 200, Great Britain 770. The interest on the National Debt of Great Britain, is calculated at 28,000,000!

NAVIES OF FRANCE AND HOLLAND.—A Belgian writer states that in 1789, France possessed 261 ships of war, amongst which were 72 ships of the line, and that at that time her population was 24,800,000 souls;—but that in 1832, with a population of 34,000,000, she has only 277 ships of war, including 34 ships of the line, and 53 frigates and sloops.—The decrease has been particularly marked during the last five years, though they have brought no war with them. Holland, at the present moment, has 97 ships of war afloat, 9 of which are ships of the line, and 39 frigates, and her population does not exceed 2,300,000. The latter, therefore, has in proportion a much larger navy than the former, for she has a ship to every 23,711 inhabitants, whilst France has not more than one to every 122,743! The facts and the computation are both minutely curious.—*U. Service Journal.*

MARRIAGES.

At New Brunswick, (N. J.) on the 28th February, JOHN H. GRAHAM, of the U. S. Navy, to CORNELIA, daughter of the Reverend Dr. PHILIP MILLEDOLER, President of Rutgers College.

In Charlestown, (Mass.) on the 5th March, Lieut. THOMAS O. SELFRIDGE, U. S. Navy, to Miss LOUISA C. daughter of JOHN SOLEY, Esq.

In Baltimore, on the 20th March, Lieut. GEORGE N. HOLLINS, of the Navy, to MARIA RIDGELY, daughter of the late Gen. JOSEPH STERETT.

DEATHS.

At Portsmouth, (Va.) on the 27th Feb. Mrs. ELIZA L. LYNE, wife of Lieut. WM. B. LYNE, of the U. S. Navy.

In Norfolk, (Va.) on the 3d March, HOMOGENIA STATIRA, 7th daughter of Capt. E. P. KENNEDY, U. States Navy, in the 7th year of her age, after an illness of six days, with spotted fever and putrid sore throat.

At Fort Monroe, on the 9th March, Sergeant NATH'L FARNSWORTH, of Capt. MACKAY'S Company H, 3d Regiment U. S. Artillery, aged 30 years, a native of Massachusetts. He was a man of most exemplary conduct and habits, and possessing in an eminent degree the good opinion and friendship of his superior officers, as well as his associates in rank and in private life.

In New York, on the 22d Feb. Lieut. JOHN M. SULLIVAN, U. S. Navy.

At Rio Janeiro, on board the U. S. ship Warren, by an accidental fall from the poop deck, his head striking the gun carriage, Lieut. RICHARD R. McMULLIN, of the Navy. He was buried on the 29th Jan. in the Protestant Burying Ground, with the customary honors.

In Bremen, (Me.) on the 10th March, Commodore SAMUEL TUCKER, aged 87 years. Full of years and full of glory, this veteran sleeps with the heroes and patriarchs of the Revolution, among whom there was not one whose personal services contributed more towards our National Independence.

RESIGNATION.

Midshipman NATHAN B. LANE, 27th February, 1833.

MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

VOL. I.---NO. 3.---MAY, 1833.

LIVE OAK TIMBER FOR THE NAVY.

THE preservation of Live Oak Timber for Naval purposes, attracted the serious attention of Congress and the Executive, during the Administration of President MONROE; when it was discovered that unless efficient measures were adopted to prevent the abstraction of this most valuable production of our soil by foreigners, or on private speculation, the supply would be so far lessened as to be insufficient for our purposes.

Agents were sent out to examine the tracts of land, on which Live Oak grew, and much of that contiguous to navigation was reserved from public sale. After the appropriations for the Gradual Increase of the Navy were exhausted, Congress, with a very commendable liberality, appropriated $500,000 annually, for five years, for the Gradual *Improvement* of the Navy; meaning thereby to secure a supply of imperishable articles for future use. This appropriation has recently been renewed for a further term of six years.

By a resolution of the House of Representatives, passed 25th February 1832, the Secretary of the Navy was called upon for information relative to Naval Timber, and in December last submitted a report in compliance therewith.

Conceiving it a subject of great importance to the Navy, the occupation of the pages of the Magazine with a portion of the report will not, we hope, be considered amiss. The present number contains about one half—the remainder will be inserted in the next. The tabular statements accompa-

nying it are too voluminous for insertion; and as they are not considered absolutely necessary to a proper understanding of the subject, they are consequently omitted, as are the references to them.

NAVY DEPARTMENT,
December 14, 1832.

SIR: I have the honor to submit this communication, in compliance with the last clause of a resolution of the House of Representatives, passed February 25th, A. D. 1832, on the subject of live oak.

That clause requested the Secretary of the Navy to report to the House, "at an early period of the next session of Congress, such further information on this subject as he may be furnished with by the agents, or others, who may be employed in the service, with his views of the best means of preserving the naval timber growing on the public lands; or, if he deem it necessary, that he lay before the House a plan or system which he may think best calculated to secure to the nation an adequate supply of this material, either by cultivation or the purchase of lands now containing such supply."

As the preceding clauses in this resolution related to no other timber than live oak, and as the examinations of the agents have been directed chiefly to that material, I presumed that such timber only was in this case intended to be embraced under the expression of "navy timber," and have accordingly confined my remarks to the subject of live oak.

In respect to the "further information," which has been furnished by the agents, concerning that kind of timber, since the passage of the resolution, and which information is first called for, I would observe, that frequent and extensive additions have been made to what was before procured; but, from the circumstances under which the agents necessarily obtain new information, it has been forwarded in very detached portions. Merely laying copies of their several communications before Congress, would exhibit a mass of undigested matter, which would not readily afford any definite conclusions.

It has, therefore, been deemed proper to extract the material facts contained in all the correspondence of the agents under the present system, and to arrange them in as clear a manner as the general, and, in some degree, uncertain nature of the examinations and estimates would permit. The result of the whole is submitted in the tabular statement.

This statement shows, nearly as practicable, the present number of trees growing on what are supposed to be public lands in each of the seven districts between the St. Marys and the Sabine rivers, so far as each has been explored by these agents.

It also gives the estimated number of cubic feet in those trees suitable for the frames of ships of the line, frigates, sloops and schooners. It indicates the parts of each district in which the trees grow, their distance from navigable water, and whether the lands on which they grow have yet been surveyed, or reserved, or recommended to be reserved, when hereafter surveyed.

Another statement has been prepared, in a similar manner, relative to the live oak trees incidentally noticed and reported by these agents, as growing within their districts on private lands. But as the examinations of such trees were not officially required of them, except where very numerous and valuable, this statement is doubtless more imperfect and more below the whole quantity of trees growing on private lands within their districts, than is the first mentioned statement of trees growing on the public lands.

To meet the views of the select committee on the subject of live oak, appointed at the last session of Congress, the localities of most of the trees described in both these statements, have been marked by the draftsman of the Department, upon the map. On the accuracy of the statements it may be proper to remark, what must be fully apparent to all acquainted with the difficulties of this subject, that the Department can only vouch for their correctness as careful compilations from the reports of the agents.

These agents, however intelligent and faithful, could not attain perfect certainty in their examinations, but are believed to have generally evinced capacity and accuracy in the discharge of the duties confided to them.

A few circumstances, which have occurred to me as likely to possess some bearing on the whole result of their proceedings, and therefore entitled to consideration in forming an opinion on them, I deem it my duty to suggest for the attention of Congress.

A portion of these trees, when cut, may be found decayed by age, or injured by wind-shakes, beyond the allowance made on these accounts in the reports of some of the agents. In this kind of timber, as decay generally commences at the heart, it is hardly possible to decide with correctness on the extent of such defects until the tree is felled. Another portion of these trees in the future settlement of titles to the lands in some of the districts, may be found to grow on soil not owned by the public, though the trees are reported, in the first tabular statement, as being on public lands. Those titles, especially in some parts of Florida, continue in much doubt, but less so, it is believed, on the sea coast, where the live oak is more abundant and valuable than in the interior. Only about one-seventeenth of the land included in the seven districts, is computed to belong, at this time, to private persons.

Some of these trees may be found so situated as to navigable water, that the value of their timber will not be sufficient to pay for its transportation. The specific gravity of live oak is from one-fifth to one-sixth greater than that of water, and the trees generally grow where the roads are so bad, and the soil so moist, that the transportation by land, for any considerable distance, of so heavy an article, and in such large pieces as are required for naval purposes, would be either impracticable or exceedingly expensive.

Part of these trees are so sparsely scattered, and in such detached situations, that the agents have not considered their worth sufficient to justify recommendations to reserve the lands on which they grow: others are on lands which have not yet been reserved, because not surveyed.

In fine, a portion of these trees, while standing, and before wanted for immediate use or deposite, must be considered as exposed to certain loss by depredations, gales, fires and natural decay.

On the other hand, before wanted, much young growth, not now included in the reports of the agents, will have increased in size so as to become valuable; and, without doubt, some other trees will be discovered in the explored districts, which have now escaped research; and many more trees will be found in those portions of two of the districts which have not yet been even partially explored.

It is to be recollected also, that the scattered trees, not in sufficient quantities on the public lands to justify their reservation, and those trees on lands now supposed to be public, but which may hereafter prove to belong to individuals, although they must all hereafter be deducted from the first tabular statement, will still constitute additions to the second statement; and, with most of the trees in it, will probably contribute as useful resources, either in private hands, to supply, by contract, the more early wants of the navy, or, in a few instances, to be purchased and reserved by the Government, with the soil on which they grow, wherever and whenever their great number to the acre, and the urgent necessities of the public service, may be thought to render such a course judicious.

Without any additions or deductions on account of these circumstances, the amount of which additions and deductions it would not be possible to fix with great certainty, but which every person can estimate for himself, it will be seen that the whole number of live oak trees suitable for ship building, which the agents under the present system have yet examined and reported as now growing on the public lands, is about 144,655.

These, at twenty cubic feet per tree on an average, which is the estimate adopted by some persons, would furnish 2,893,

100 cubic feet of timber. Others, of much experience, calculate that such trees "of the ordinary size," would each, on an average, yield at least eighty cubic feet. [Rep. 102, Ho. of Rep. 21st Cong. 2d ses. 78 page.]

This would increase the whole quantity to 11,572,400 cubic feet. About fifty feet, the mean between the two estimates above mentioned, will probably be found the most accurate; as the quantity to each oak timber tree, on an average, in England, is computed at forty-five feet, and the live oak, though it may not be generally of so great height as the British oak, yet from its longer horizontal limbs, it often yields more ship timber. At this rate of computation, there would be 7,232,750 cubic feet.

The proportion of this timber, as found growing and suitable for ship-building, which is large enough to construct ships of the line, is sometimes considered about one-half; and to construct frigates, about one-third; and to construct sloops and schooners, one-sixth.

But, reducing this proportion to one-fourth for ships of the line, one-fourth for frigates, and one-half for sloops and schooners, which must be within the truth, [Doc. 178, Ho. of Reps. page 26, March, 1832,] and computing 34,000 cubic feet as sufficient for the frame of a ship of the line, 23,000 for that of a frigate of the first class, 18,000 for one of the second class, 8,000 for that of a sloop, and 1,800 for that of a schooner, which are near the average quantities; and the whole first named number of feet on public lands would suffice for the frames of 173 vessels: one-fourth of these would be ships of the line, one-fourth frigates, and one-half sloops and schooners —the two last in equal proportions.

The whole second named number of feet on public lands would suffice for 693, and the medium number of feet for 433 similar vessels.

It will further be seen by the second tabular statement, that, pursuing the same course of calculation, the number of trees as yet reported by these agents, as now growing on private lands, being in all 8,975, their contents in ship timber would be on the three different estimates before mentioned, 179,500, or 718,000, or 448,750 cubic feet. This, if all of it should hereafter be obtained for the navy, would prove sufficient for 10 or 43, or 27 vessels, as one or the other of the above estimates should be adopted. Without any increase for other trees known to exist in Georgia and South Carolina on private lands, and, in portions of some of these districts, on both private and public lands not yet fully examined by these agents, the above results, I am aware, are much larger than what have been published as the opinions of some intelligent persons on the whole supposed quantities of live oak timber growing in

this country. But it is to be recollected, that those opinions were founded on observations and explorations much more limited and imperfect, and made in part at such remote periods, as to leave it greatly conjectural how little of the timber, once seen, still remained uncut and undestroyed. The present results, also, large as they are, might be expected to exceed the computations of any individual heretofore, as they embody all the detached and more careful examinations of many individuals. Giving the quantity now remaining, from actual inspection, and on the public lands, not from rumor or estimates made at a distance, except in a single case, which is particularized, they likewise have some superior claims to correctness.

2d. The second point embraced in the resolution, is a statement of my "views of the best means of preserving the navy timber growing on public lands."

On this subject, the legal remedies which now exist for depredations committed, are deemed sufficient, so far as respects punishment. But, for the detection and prevention of trespasses, I think it should be further provided by law, that the masters of all vessels which sail from Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, or Louisiana, laden with live oak, should furnish to the collector, before allowed a clearance, satisfactory evidence that the timber was cut on private lands; or, if on public lands, was cut with the permission of the proper officers. As an additional security against depredations, and particularly against injuries by fires, I would recommend that it be made the duty of all public officers in the above named States and Territories, connected with the customs and the land offices, to keep a vigilant eye on the security of our live oak, and to prosecute persons known to be guilty of gross neglect, or wanton wrong, to the damage of this species of public property. These provisions, added to the present laws, and coupled with the prompt reservation of the lands on which valuable growths of timber exist, as fast as the country is surveyed where they exist, will constitute, in my opinion, "the best means of preserving the navy timber growing on the public lands."

3d. The last section of the resolution requests the Secretary of the Navy, "if he deem it necessary, that he lay before the House a plan or system, which he may think best calculated to secure to the nation an adequate supply of this material, either by cultivation or purchase of lands now containing such supply."

The select committee on live oak, appointed the last session, made a similar request, and extended it to some other particulars bearing on this subject, and which request, so far as not then answered, I will endeavour to comply with in the

course of my remarks under this branch of the present inquiry. —The diversity of views, and the conflicting interests, known to be connected with any course which the Government might be advised to pursue hereafter on this portion of the resolution, will undoubtedly expose all opinions, recommending any particular course, to some severity of criticism, and might, in the present unfinished state of the examinations by our agents, have furnished me with a sufficient apology for not expressing, at this time, any decided sentiments on so controverted a topic. But believing that some of the difficulties hitherto existing, arose from defective information, which the recent examinations by the agents, far as completed, and the collection of certain material facts accessible to the Department, would tend to remove; and that it might be considered as avoiding responsibility and labor not to comply with the apparent wishes of the House of Representatives fully as practicable; I have not hesitated to present, under this head, so far as my exertions could extend, every fact and estimate that appeared pertinent to the inquiry, and likely to be useful in the future deliberations and legislation of Congress on this important portion of the resolution.

In only a few of the computations which may be offered, do I profess to have attained perfect accuracy; but, in all of them, there has been attempted the nearest approximation to it which the defective materials before me, and the uncertain nature of the subject, permitted. I entertain no doubt that those who are acquainted with the inherent difficulties attending this inquiry, and the contradictory opinions generally prevalent on this part of the subject, will exercise the liberality duly to appreciate my motives, and to make suitable allowances for any unintentional errors.

In order to decide judiciously on a proper "plan or system," in future, either for purchasing more lands, now covered with a valuable growth of live oak, or for cultivating artificially this kind of tree on any lands, and in any particular method, it will be necessary, first, to ascertain our probable demands, in future, for that species of timber, and, afterwards, our means of obtaining a sufficient supply of it to meet those demands, either from materials now on hand, or by contracts from private lands, or from the public domain in its present condition.

The frames of our public vessels are the only parts of them usually constructed of live oak timber, and the computations will therefore be confined to a supply for the frames.

Upon the hypothesis that our force in commission will, for some years, be continued at about its present size, and on the propriety of which hypothesis some remarks may hereafter be offered, it will be indispensable to provide annually a small quantity of live oak timber for ordinary repairs, and another

quantity, somewhat larger, to take the places of such vessels as may be lost by accident, wars, and great natural decay. I have turned my attention, first, to the quantities deemed indispensable, and have considered those for the objects just named as the only ones strictly indispensable: because the further quantity needed for the vessels which sound policy may require us to keep in ordinary, and on the stocks, or the quantity in live oak timber which the same policy may require us to place in depot, to aid in enabling us to increase, at any time, our force in commission, so as to meet any future emergencies of the country, is rather a matter of public expediency than of indispensable necessity. It will depend on arguments as to the proper size of our naval establishment, and the proper extent of our collection of naval materials to meet future contingencies, and about which opinions may somewhat differ, and which will soon be examined, rather than on an immediate, obvious, and indispensable want, about which little diversity of sentiment can prevail.

The first indispensable quantity, which is that for small annual repairs of the live oak frames of our vessels kept in commission, will probably not much exceed 1,700 feet per year, or about one per cent. on the whole quantity of these frames.

Though this amount may appear small, it will undoubtedly be found ample for the object, when we advert to the kind of repairs here specified; to the durability of the timber used in the frames to be repaired; to the unexposed parts of the vessel in which it is used; and to the favorable result of our experience on this subject, which will hereafter be detailed.

The next indispensable quantity, which is that wanted to take the place of what live oak in frames may be lost while in commission by great decay, by fire, shipwreck, and war, will probably not exceed 8,500 cubic feet per year. This last computation is founded on the estimate, that, in the ordinary course of events, it will become necessary from great decays, and from disasters, either virtually, by large repairs, or actually, by either rebuilding, or by the substitution of other vessels already built, to replace all our force of live oak vessels now in commission during the lapse of the next fifth of a century.

This force consists of four frigates, nine sloops, and seven schooners; all the frames of which, except of one schooner, are in part, or altogether, composed of live oak. At the rate of computation, before suggested as correct, those of live oak contain about 165,480 cubic feet, and 1-20th of that is 8,274 feet, or about five per cent. on the whole quantity at present in commission. This augmented to 8,500 feet, and the 1,700 estimated for small repairs, will together amount to over six per cent. on the frames actually in service, as the quantity here computed necessary to maintain them entire. Without at this

time offering any thing more on the basis of these calculations, but the general correctness of which will be illustrated in the course of this report, it may be seen that these two estimates will require to be provided for small repairs, and for replacing losses from all causes, in our live oak vessels in commission, about 10,200 cubic feet annually, or at the average rate per year of a quantity more than sufficient for one new sloop, or each two years about enough for a frigate of the first class, or each three years almost enough for a ship of the line.

In regard to the procurement of these indispensable supplies, the first quantity for annual repairs, considering the use for which it is wanted, must be obtained in detached pieces; and, as we now have on hand 75,000 feet of live oak purchased for repairs, and of which over 50,000 is intended for ordinary ones, it could for twenty or thirty years be furnished from that source, and afterwards, if necessary, from timber in depot.

The second quantity could mostly, and to great advantage, be obtained for many years, by substituting our vessels now in ordinary, whenever they are of the size wanted. The frames of such of them as were built of live oak, contain about 322,633 cubic feet, being an amount, nominally, sufficient to replace more than twice the loss of our whole force in commission. The frames of the Macedonian, Hudson, and Cyane, and two-thirds of that of the Guerriere, are excluded from this computation, as not being of live oak: and other large deductions should undoubtedly be made from the extent of this source of supply, in consequence of the advanced age of a number of the live oak vessels in ordinary, and the future decay to which they are all liable while remaining in ordinary.

Besides this source of supply to replace those in commission, we have vessels on the stocks which contain in their frames about 354,000 cubic feet, and constitute a sure and more durable resort when necessary, than those in ordinary.

These vessels, now on the stocks, are sheltered from injury by the weather; are not decayed by either wet or dry rot; are little exposed to future damage except by fire; and, until launched, bid fair to continue sound, at least in their frames, for some generations.

Again: beyond both of those resources to replace lost and decayed vessels now in commission, are the live oak frames in deposite at the different yards, and to which, in case of necessity, a resort might be had. These contain over 431,845 cubic feet of timber, or nearly thrice the quantity now in commission; and they will probably remain not essentially injured for centuries, if receiving proper attention, and if, in the mean time, they are not wanted for public purposes.

These general remarks and estimates are presented merely with a view to furnish some aid in forming a just opinion on

the true extent and character of our resources on hand in live oak timber, and on their sufficiency, if required, to meet, for a time, our indispensable wants of that kind of timber.

But it is by no means recommended to place entire reliance even for our indispensable wants, or any large portion of them, upon the resources just enumerated.

On the contrary, some further remarks and estimates will now be presented, with a design to throw additional light on the extent of our resources in live oak timber, whether growing or cut, and in various shapes now on hand, and whether growing on public or private lands, but yet suitable and available to meet all such demands for that kind of timber as may be required in this country, no less by a future sound policy on naval subjects than by our indispensable wants.

In this inquiry, it is desirable first to ascertain, near as may be, what has been the extent of all our former demands in the navy for live oak timber; and then to estimate, from that extent and other considerations, what those demands will probably be hereafter. It will next become proper to ascertain whence and how the supply for those former demands has been obtained; and then, from that result and other information bearing on the subject, to estimate whence and how the supply for our future demands is to be obtained.

All our purchases and use of live oak timber heretofore for annual repairs, all our purchases and use of the same kind of timber for the immediate building of vessels, and all our purchases and deposites still remaining for the future gradual improvement of our navy, cannot be ascertained with accuracy; but, probably, can be computed so nearly to the truth, as to furnish material aid in forming an opinion on the whole extent of all our demands, both hitherto and hereafter, for live oak timber.

It is gathered from our records and other sources, that our former purchases of live oak timber for all kinds of repairs of all vessels afloat, have probably been about 168,000 cubic feet.

The basis of this and most of my other material calculations will be given, in order that any errors may be detected, and, in the final result, all due corrections and allowances be made, not only on account of arithmetical mistakes, but diversities of opinion on any of the important data entering into the elements of those calculations.

Our purchases of live oak timber for all kinds of repairs during the last ten years, have been 75,000 feet: previous to that, our records on this subject are defective, and the amount is to be estimated. As the above 75,000 feet included 10,000 feet for the rebuilding of one live oak vessel, and 57,000 for the repair and rebuilding of other vessels not before constructed of live oak, and as similar occurrences are not known to

have happened before, I have computed the purchases during the previous ten years at only two-thirds as much, or 50,000 feet, and during the fifteen years still previous, when our vessels were fewer and newer, at the rate of only one-half as much as in the succeeding ten years, or 37,500 feet, making in all, with an addition of about four per cent. for errors, the above amount of 168,000 cubic feet. The portion of this whole quantity which has been actually used for small ordinary repairs of our live oak vessels is not readily to be ascertained, but it is a very important inquiry, with a view to estimating accurately as possible, what may be the extent of our annual demands hereafter for that species of repairs.

The amount we have actually used for that purpose has, according to my estimate, been only about 33,000 feet. The basis of this estimate is, that for all kinds of repairs during the last ten years to the frames of our vessels, it cannot be ascertained that we have used over 54,000 feet of live oak timber. Our record shows that 42,000 of that has been used in other repairs than small and ordinary ones, to the live oak frames of vessels, and, consequently, leave only 12,000 feet, or an average 1,200 per year, as the probable amount consumed in this last description of repairs. Computing these last, during the ten previous years, to have been equally large, as that time included a period of war, and during the first fifteen years of our more limited establishment, to have been at the rate of only half as large, and the result would be as above stated, but 33,000 feet actually used hitherto for the small repairs of the live oak frames of all our vessels.

The correctness of this result is strengthened by the circumstance that, of the whole amount of 168,000 feet purchased for repairs, we are able to ascertain that about 57,000 have been used, and are now using, to repair and rebuild frames, before constructed of other than live oak timber; and about 20,000 have been used to repair largely, and to rebuild vessels before constructed of live oak. We have now on hand, for the purpose of ordinary repairs, about 50,000, and these three items, with the 33,000 feet before estimated as used for small repairs, would absorb the whole purchases except 8,000 feet. It is known, that some of this 8,000 feet has been used in the ordnance service during the late war, and that some has been occasionally diverted to still other public purposes, and all of which, with the casualties of over a fourth of a century, would probably equal the whole balance.

Though this estimate makes the actual use of timber for the small repairs of our live oak vessels during the last thirty-five years, to have been, on an average, less than 1,000 feet annually, and during the last ten years, only 1,200 feet annually, yet our future demand for that purpose must be computed much

higher. A number of the live oak vessels afloat are very old; most of them have been launched over ten years. The whole repairs in them must become larger, and a plain line between "small" and "middling" repairs in such vessels, cannot always be drawn with much accuracy.

Under these circumstances, coupled with a due allowance for errors in our result as to the past, I think that 3,400 feet annually will be a proper and a liberal estimate for our future demands for live oak for the purpose of small ordinary repairs. This is an aggregate of about one per cent. on our force in commission, and of about one-half of one per cent. on that in ordinary; or, on an average, nearly three-fourths of one per cent. on the whole force afloat. Our Navy Board consider two per cent. on what is afloat as a fair estimate of this species of timber annually wanted for all kinds of repairs.

Deeming this to be correct, the portion of it I have computed to be chargeable to small ordinary repairs hereafter, is much greater than my estimate before made is of our actual past use for this kind of repairs out of the whole.

As further evidence that I have thus computed enough for this kind of repairs, it will be observed, that the proportion for small repairs out of the whole, would, in fact, be somewhat greater for the past than the future, as the large repairs in the frames of our live oak vessels heretofore, have, in only one case, been known to exceed fifty per cent. on their original cost, while as our vessels grow older, the larger repairs must be more frequent, and constitute a larger proportion of the whole.

Much light cannot be thrown on this subject by the yearly appropriations for all our repairs as compared with the computed original cost of our vessels. Those appropriations have been for some years over eight per cent. on that cost. But this has included not only repairs of the vessels, but of their equipments, and of other parts of less durable timber, as well as of the frames, and large as well as small repairs, and the labor in making all these repairs. In fact, it presents not far from the amount in money deemed necessary not merely to repair the frames, but to maintain entire the materials of every kind in our whole force afloat. It happens also that very little pertinent information on this point can be derived from foreign services. The French estimate that their vessels will require to be slightly repaired in four years, thoroughly in eight, and virtually, if not nominally, rebuilt in eleven years.

The British estimate that "small" repairs will be necessary in five or six years, and "very small" sooner. Though they divide repairs into various grades and titles, from "very small," at one-eighth of the original cost, and "small," at one-fifth, up to "large," at nine-tenths, and "very large," at first cost, yet I have not found the average time for each kind esti-

mated, except the whole average duration of their vessels is now computed at about 13 years. Sometimes all their repairs are estimated at one-seventy-second per year of the quantity of timber afloat, or equal to one-fourth of what is deemed necessary to keep up annually their establishment entire.

But, as might be expected, considering the inferior durability of fir and of all other oak to live oak, and the less proportion of repairs required on frames than other parts of a vessel, all these expenditures are in a ratio nearly one-half larger than our estimate for future small repairs on only our live oak frames, and, making a due allowance for every circumstance, rather confirm than impair the results which I have before stated.

Assuming, then, for the present, what will hereafter be further examined, that our force now afloat will not, for some years, be essentially diminished or enlarged, the quantity of 3,400 feet of live oak annually, will, it is probable, prove sufficient for the small ordinary repairs of all our live oak frames afloat, and will, therefore, constitute the first item in our permanent yearly demands for this kind of timber, to be in some way, and from some quarter, hereafter supplied.

Our annual purchases, and actual use of live oak timber for building, independent of common wear and tear, form the next subject of inquiry. It is well known that these purchases have heretofore been very irregular. But all this timber which has been used in the frames of public vessels constructed since A. D. 1797, whether originally purchased for that or other purposes, has been about 974,363 cubic feet. This is on an average about 27,838 feet per year. What may be the extent of our annual demands on this account in future, will depend, in some measure, on fluctuations in policy as to the whole size of our naval establishment, on the amount of force deemed proper to be kept in commission, on misfortunes in war and by shipwreck, on the future decay of our vessels already built, and much on the circumstance whether the quantity of live oak required in consequence of these causes, shall, for many years, be supplied entirely or partially by rebuilding anew, and by purchases for that object, or entirely by substituting other vessels now in ordinary and on the stocks, and by taking frames already in depot.

But should this quantity be supplied hereafter in such manner as not to diminish the sum total of our present force of live oak in commission, in ordinary, and on the stocks, though we might advantageously, as new vessels are wanted in commission, supply our necessities from those in ordinary, when of the size wanted, and proportionably increase the number of those on the stocks, since vessels in the latter state are preserved with less injury than in the former; and should it be made in such manner as not to diminish our frames in depot,

but allow their annual increase in the mode lately practised, and now, as well as heretofore, earnestly recommended, we shall then pursue that manner in furnishing the quantity needed which seems to me least exceptionable and most consonant to the only correct general policy on the subject of our navy. In that event, there would probably be required about one-twentieth of the present quantity of live oak in commission, or 8,274 feet, and one-thirtieth of that in ordinary, or 10,754 feet, to supply the average annual losses by large and entire decay in the frames of vessels of those two descriptions. To this may be added, in order to meet every probable and almost possible contingency, about one-half of one per cent. for losses by shipwreck on those in commission, amounting to about 827 feet, and about one-third of one per cent. more for losses by accidental fire on all in commission, in ordinary, on the stocks, and on all timber in depot under sheds. This last one-third of one per cent. will be about 4,246 feet. These estimates for shipwreck and fire exceed any thing which our experience, as hereafter detailed, would justify; but are adopted to meet any plausible, though large computation for the future. These all would constitute, under this head, about 24,101 feet per year as a second item in our annual permanent demands to be supplied. This quantity, it will be seen, is about one-twentieth, or 5 per cent. of the whole frames afloat. If the amount for small repairs be added to it, making together 27,101 feet, it would be almost 5 3-4 per cent. or over one-eighteenth of the whole afloat. This is deemed requisite to keep up, in all respects, the live oak frames of the entire establishment in commission and ordinary. In England it is estimated by some that one-eighteenth is necessary for that purpose, including all parts, instead of only the frames of the vessel, and all those consisting of inferior kinds of timber. The Commissioners of our Navy Board estimate it at 6 per cent on the live oak frames, or about one-seventeenth of the whole afloat.

This would make a difference of only about 1,785 feet, and, to avoid mistakes, and to cover all deficiences, I shall assume that per cent. as correct in my future calculations, and thus increase the sum per year for large repairs and rebuilding to about 25,886 feet. To illustrate the basis of these computations a little more by details, it will be seen that the estimates under this head are founded on the supposed continuance, during some years, of our force afloat at its present size, as not being too large for all our legitimate wants.

So far from its present size being deemed too large for those wants, or at all adapted to the expensive scale of one, two, and three hundred vessels in commission, or to one, three, and five hundred vessels built and building, as practis-

ed by some of the great maritime powers of Europe, and so far from its looking to any extravagant project for either ostentation or future naval conquests, or the gratification of mere national pride, it differs but little from what was estimated as judicious in December, 1798, the very first year this Department went into operation.

The Secretary of the Navy at that time suggested that a proper permanent force at command should not be less than "12 ships of 74 guns, as many frigates, and 20 or 30 smaller vessels." In January, A. D. 1801, a similar estimate was presented, and, in December, 1811, a like opinion was expressed by the Department, except a recommendation to augment the number of frigates to 20, and leave the smaller vessels to be regulated by future convenience and exigencies.—The instructive lessons taught on this subject during the late war, and our experience during the last seventeen years, confirm the sound political wisdom of now maintaining an establishment at least equal to our present one. The more extensive range of our commerce, its new exposures in barbarous countries, the great increase of our seaboard by the purchase of Louisiana and Florida, and the convulsions that now agitate many parts of the civilized world, would seem to dictate a considerable increase rather than reduction, since the original estimates of the only species of force which can yield to our commercial interests abroad efficient protection, maintain there "the rights and independence" of the Union, "secure the personal liberty of our citizens," and be in readiness, on any emergency at home, to aid powerfully in the defence of our great coasting trade, and our very extended maritime frontier.

Presuming, then, that the expediency of continuing, for some years at least the present strength of our disposable force, has been satisfactorily shown, it is believed that the allowance before proposed for annual losses by accident and decay will, on a little inquiry and reflection, be deemed amply sufficient. Many of the vessels afloat, which have been launched within the last fifteen years, will probably endure more than one-fourth of a century longer, while some of them, built earlier, may perish sooner. Four of our present frigates, the Constitution, the United States, the Congress, and the Constellation, were all afloat before A. D. 1800, and three of them in 1797. Though they have since undergone frequent repairs, yet their original frames, except where destroyed by too large and frequent boring for treenails, or where constructed of timber not well seasoned, mostly remain sound. As the improved practice of bolting with copper and iron, and, consequently, of making smaller and fewer holes, shall prevail extensively, the first named source of injury to our ships of war

will diminish; and though from ten to fifteen years is the average estimated duration of an English oak vessel in commission, and only from six to ten years the duration of the vessels of many European powers when made of other oak or of fir, yet our experience, and the changes above mentioned, justify a belief, that from forty to fifty years, will in future be nearer the truth, in respect to the serviceable duration of the frames of vessels built of well seasoned live oak, and used from time to time as ours have been, alternately in commission and in ordinary, and, when in ordinary, protected as ours now are, with great skill and attention. Should our present excellent system of ventilating, covering and inspecting vessels, while in ordinary, continue, their frames, when of live oak, will probably last many years without being much impaired, and the allowance proper on account of their future decay will be somewhat less than that for vessels while in commission. Accordingly, we have estimated the average duration of those now in commission at about 20 years; and, as many of the vessels now in ordinary are comparatively new, as the frames of some others have not been injured by frequent boring and repairs, and all of them are so well protected from the weather, it might be safely calculated that the whole in ordinary, if put into use as needed, in the place of those in commission, would not, on an average, perish under thirty years.

The manner of building, as to care and closeness of finish, the dryness and good ventilation of the inside of the vessel after launched, as well as the thorough previous seasoning of the timber—all have a material influence on its durability, and have of late years, received particular attention in our service. To these remarks bearing on the correctness of the above allowances, it may be added that, during the last thirty-five years, since our present navy commenced, only a single live oak vessel in our service is known to have been chiefly lost by natural decay, and only two small ones by shipwreck. This has scarcely any thing like a parallel, unless in what is reported of the finely built vessels of teak, at Bombay. Some decays and injuries in most of the live oak frames of our vessels have, of course occurred from common wear and tear, and some from the other special causes previously enumerated.

But most of the repairs in our vessels hitherto have been in other portions of them than such as are made of live oak; little is justly chargeable to great decay in the live oak frames. Another series of facts resting on careful computations will lead us to a similar conclusion. Of the whole quantity of live oak put into the frames of public vessels in building them since 1797, being about 974,363 cubic feet, there now remain about 165,480 feet in commission, 322,633 feet in ordinary, and 354,000 feet on the stocks, leaving only 132,250 feet not now

on hand. Of this last quantity, 8,000 feet were sold by order of Congress, in A. D. 1801, 68,375 feet were captured and supposed to be destroyed by our enemies in four different wars: 44,500 feet were burned by ourselves in 1814: 3,375 feet have perished by shipwreck, and only about 8,000 feet by great natural decay, requiring rebuilding. This makes a loss of live oak vessels in 35 years, by the last cause, of nominally almost nothing, as the only vessel considered to have been thus lost is the original John Adams, which, having been imperfectly built by contract in a private yard, and with timber not known to be thoroughly seasoned, experienced a premature failure.—But, in reality, the loss by decay has been only the above amount of 8,000 feet; and what has been supplied as before suggested, in small quantities, in the ordinary annual repairs, and some more extensive injuries before referred to in the older vessels, arising from peculiar circumstances, and which injuries, for reasons before named, will not probably so often occur hereafter. Though the extent of all the repairs, which, technically, ought to be charged to rebuilding, cannot be exactly ascertained, I think that a liberal estimate has been presented for them, and for entire rebuilding from all kinds of losses in future, by computing it at 25,886 feet annually, or a little more than enough for one frigate of the first class every year. I have made no specific estimate for losses in future wars to be hereafter supplied, because it is hoped those losses will prove few and far between, and because, if greater than what we may acquire by captures, they could readily be replaced from frames in depot, the great safeguard and reliance in this respect in any national emergency.

LAWS OF THE UNITED STATES.

AN ACT making appropriations for the Naval Service for the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-three.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the following sums be appropriated for the naval service for the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-three, in addition to the unexpended balances of former appropriations for similar objects, viz:

For pay and subsistence of the officers of the navy and the pay of seamen, one million four hundred and forty-five thousand dollars.

For pay of superintendents, naval constructors, and all the civil establishments at the several yards, fifty-seven thousand three hundred and thirty dollars.

For provisions, four hundred and sixty thousand dollars.

Repairs for vessels in ordinary, and the repairs and wear and tear of vessels in commission, five hundred and six thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars.

For medicines and surgical instruments, hospital stores, and other expenses on account of the sick, thirty-five thousand dollars.

For improvements and necessary repairs of navy yards, viz:

For the navy yard at Portsmouth, twenty-one thousand five hundred and twenty-four dollars.

For the navy yard at Boston, seventy-three thousand five hundred and thirty-five dollars.

For the navy yard at New York, thirty-four thousand eight hundred and fifty dollars.

For the navy yard at Philadelphia, three thousand two hundred and seventy-five dollars.

For the navy yard at Washington, sixteen thousand dollars.

For the navy yard at Norfolk, one hundred and twenty-six thousand five hundred and twenty-nine dollars.

For the navy yard at Pensacola, fifty-three thousand one hundred and fifty dollars.

For ordnance, and ordnance stores, ten thousand dollars.

For defraying expenses; for freight and transportation of materials and stores of every description; for wharfage and dockage, storage and rent, travelling expenses of officers, and transportation of seamen, house rent, chamber money, and fuel and candles to officers, other than those attached to navy yards and stations, and for officers in sick quarters, where there is no hospital, and for funeral expenses; for commissions, clerk hire, and office rent, stationary, and fuel to navy agents; for premiums, and incidental expenses of recruiting; for apprehending deserters; for compensation to judge advocates; for per diem allowances for persons attending courts martial, and courts of inquiry, and for officers engaged in extra service beyond the limits of their stations; for printing and stationary of every description, and for books, maps, charts, and mathematical and nautical instruments, chronometers, models, and drawings; for purchase and repair of steam and fire engines, and for machinery; for purchase and maintenance of oxen and horses, and for carts, timber wheels, and workmen's tools of every description; for postage of letters on public service; for pilotage; for cabin furniture of vessels in commission, and for furniture of officers' houses at navy yards; for taxes on navy yards and public property; for assistance rendered to vessels in distress; for incidental labor at navy yards, not applicable to any other appropriation; for coal and other fuel for forges, foundries, and steam engines: for candles, oil and fuel; for vessels in commission and in ordinary; for repairs and building of magazines and powder houses, for preparing moulds for ships to be built, and for no other object or purpose whatsoever, two hundred and ninety-five thousand dollars.

For contingent expenses for objects not hereinbefore enumerated, five thousand dollars.

For pay of the officers and non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates, and for subsistence of the officers of the marine corps, one hundred and twelve thousand nine hundred and ninety dollars.

For subsistence of non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates, and washerwomen, serving on shore, eighteen thousand four hundred and thirty-nine dollars.

For clothing, twenty-eight thousand seven hundred and sixty-five dollars.

For fuel, nine thousand and ninety-eight dollars.

For contingent expenses, fourteen thousand dollars.

For military stores, two thousand dollars.

For medicines, hospital stores, and surgical instruments, two thousand three hundred and seventy dollars.

To enable the Secretary of the Treasury to discharge an outstanding claim for prize-money for the capture of the Algerine vessels in one thousand eight

hundred and fifteen, twenty-one dollars, being part of an unexpended balance carried to the surplus fund.

For the payment of claims arising under the act of eleventh of July, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two, entitled "An act concerning certain marine officers," eighteen thousand three hundred and thirty-seven dollars and twenty-eight cents.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, for the purpose of compensating the board authorized by the act of the nineteenth of May, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two, for their services in revising and enlarging "the rules and regulations governing the naval service, with the view to adapt them to the present and future exigencies of this important arm of national defence," the sum of seven thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby, appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to be paid by the Navy Department, according to the rates of allowances for detention on special service, now prescribed by the rules and regulations of the Navy Department.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the salary directed by "An act for the regulation of the navy and privateer pension, and navy hospital funds," passed July tenth, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two, to be paid to the clerk of said funds out of the Treasury of the United States, shall be paid from any money in said Treasury not otherwise appropriated.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That, for carrying into effect the acts for the suppression of the slave trade, including the support in the United States, and for a term not exceeding six months after their arrival in Africa, of all persons removed from the United States under the said acts, the sum of five thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby, appropriated, to be paid out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That there be paid to Master Commandant John D. Sloat, of the United States' Navy, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of one thousand three hundred and sixty dollars, being the amount of his account exhibited to the Navy Department for expenses incurred in entertaining, on board the St. Louis, under his command, Gen. Bolivar and several of his officers at Guayaquil, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty-nine; and General La Fuente, President of Peru, and Major General Miller, of the Peruvian Army, in the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-one.

A. STEVENSON,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
HU: L. WHITE,
President of the Senate, pro tempore.

APPROVED, February 20, 1833.

ANDREW JACKSON.

AN ACT making appropriations for the support of the Army for the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-three.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the following sums be, and they are hereby, appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the support of the army for the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-three, viz:

For pay of the army and subsistence of officers, one million three hundred and thirty-six thousand six hundred and ninety-seven dollars.

For forage of officers, fifty-four thousand three hundred and thirty dollars.

For clothing for servants of officers, twenty-four thousand dollars.

For subsistence, exclusive of that of officers, in addition to an unexpended balance of fifteen thousand dollars, three hundred and eighty-seven thousand dollars.

For clothing of the army, camp equipage, cooking utensils, and hospital furniture, in addition to material and clothing on hand, amounting to twen-

ty thousand dollars, two hundred and fifty-six thousand seven hundred and sixty-three dollars.

For medical and hospital department, thirty-one thousand dollars.

For arrearages in the same department during the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two, three thousand dollars.

For various expenses of the quartermasters' department, viz: for fuel, forage, straw, stationary, blanks, repairing officers' quarters, barracks, storehouses, and hospitals; for erecting temporary cantonments and gun houses, for rent of quarters, store houses, and lands; for postage of letters on public service; for expenses of courts martial, including compensation of judge advocates, members and witnesses; for extra pay to soldiers employed on extra labor, under the act of March second, one thousand eight hundred and nineteen; and for expenses of expresses, escorts to paymasters, and other contingencies to quartermasters' departments, two hundred and forty thousand dollars.

For transportation of officers' baggage, and allowance for travel in lieu of transportation, and for per diem allowance to officers on topographical duty, fifty-three thousand dollars.

For transportation of clothing, subsistence, ordnance, and of lead from the mines, and for transportation of the army and funds for pay of the army, including the several contingencies and items of expenditure at the several stations and garrisons usually estimated under the head of transportation of the army, one hundred and twelve thousand dollars.

For defraying the expenses of the board of visiters at West Point, two thousand dollars.

For fuel, forage, stationary, printing, transportation, and postage, for the military academy, eight thousand five hundred dollars.

For repairs, improvements, and expenses of buildings, grounds, roads, wharf, and boat, at West Point, four thousand dollars.

For pay of adjutant's and quartermaster's clerk, nine hundred dollars.

For increase and expenses of the library, fourteen hundred dollars.

For philosophical apparatus, eight hundred and ninety dollars.

For models of department of engineering, six hundred dollars.

For models for the drawing department, repairs of instruments for the mathematical department, apparatus and contingencies for the department of chemistry, nine hundred dollars.

Miscellaneous items and incidental expenses of the academy, one thousand five hundred and seventy-five dollars.

For contingencies of the army, ten thousand dollars.

For the national armories, three hundred and sixty thousand dollars.

For the armament of fortifications, one hundred thousand dollars.

For the current expenses of the ordnance service, sixty-nine thousand three hundred dollars.

For arsenals, ninety-six thousand five hundred dollars.

For the recruiting service, thirty thousand nine hundred and fifty-two dollars, in addition to an unexpended balance of twelve thousand dollars.

For the contingent expenses of the recruiting service, sixteen thousand and forty-four dollars, including an unexpended balance of eight thousand five hundred dollars on hand.

For the purchase of accoutrements and swords, sixteen thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars.

For the purchase of cannon, fourteen thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars.

For payment of arms for mounted rangers, two thousand five hundred and ninety-eight dollars.

For the purchase of arms for South Carolina, six thousand one hundred and thirty-one dollars.

For arrearages prior to the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and fifteen, payable through the Third Auditor's Office, five thousand dollars.

To enable the Second Auditor to close the accounts, under the act of 3rd March, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-one, allowing three months' gratuitous pay to disbanded officers and soldiers, five hundred dollars.

For arrearages of pay of certain militia of the State of Missouri, called out in one thousand eight hundred and twenty-nine, one thousand two hundred dollars.

For the pay of the militia of Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, and Michigan, ordered into the service of the United States during the last year, six hundred and thirty-two thousand dollars, in addition to the amount heretofore appropriated for the same purposes.

For completing barracks, quarters, and store houses, at Fort Crawford, eight thousand dollars.

For completing barracks, quarters, and store houses, at Fort Howard, ten thousand dollars.

For completing barracks, and erecting an hospital at Baton Rouge, twenty-five thousand dollars.

For making good a deficiency of appropriation for the erection of barracks at Fort Severn, Annapolis, three hundred dollars.

For the construction of a wharf at Fort Preble, Portland, including the purchase of a site, three thousand seven hundred and seventy dollars.

For repairing the wharf at Fort Independence, Boston, one thousand five hundred dollars.

For repairing the wharf at Fort Washington, on the Potomac, one thousand five hundred dollars.

For repairing the wharf at Fort Moultrie, Charleston, one thousand five hundred dollars.

For the purchase of ground adjoining Fort Trumbull, New London, four hundred dollars.

For the erection of a store house and stable on the public lot at Pittsburgh, five thousand dollars.

For the purchase of the ground at Key West, on which the barracks and quarters are erected, three thousand two hundred dollars.

For the purchase of land at Fort Gratiot, one thousand six hundred dollars.

To make good a deficiency of a former appropriation for the building of a wharf at Fort McHenry, ninety dollars and forty cents.

For repairing and extending the levees securing the works at Fort Jackson, Mississippi, and for improving the store rooms and magazine, four thousand dollars.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of War be authorized, at his discretion, out of the money appropriated by this or any former act, for the payment of the militia ordered into the service of the United States, according to law, during the year, to allow and pay to the district paymasters of the army of the United States employed in making such payments, a commission on the sums respectively paid by them, not exceeding one per centum upon the amounts.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

AN ACT making appropriations for the Engineer and Ordnance Departments.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the following sums be, and the same are hereby, appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, namely:

For collecting the materials, and making the preliminary arrangements, for the construction of a fort on George's Island, Boston harbor, Massachusetts, twenty-five thousand dollars.

For the erection of a building for military and other exercises, at the United States' Military Academy, West Point, six thousand dollars.

For the erection of a chapel at the United States' Military Academy, West Point, ten thousand dollars.

For the erection of two new dwelling houses at the National Armory at Springfield, Massachusetts, for the use of the Master Armorer and Paymaster, seven thousand dollars.

For building a pay-office and store at the same Armory, for the preservation of models and patterns, two thousand dollars.

For building a workshop for grinding and polishing, at the same Armory, six thousand dollars.

For enlarging and repairing the shop, for welding and boring musket barrels, at the same Armory, fifteen hundred dollars.

For additional machinery, at the same Armory, three thousand five hundred dollars.

For one steam engine of fifteen horse power, at the same Armory, fifteen hundred dollars.

For thirty-six double racks for placing arms in the new arsenal, at the same Armory, five thousand one hundred dollars.

For the erection of twelve additional dwelling houses for the workmen, at the National Armory at Harper's Ferry, Virginia, eight thousand six hundred dollars.

For the repair and extension of the public dam, on the Potomac river, from which the supply of water is obtained for the works of said Armory, five thousand dollars.

For the enlargement of the canal, supplying the water power of the public works of the said Armory, from the Potomac dam, thirteen thousand four hundred and ninety-five dollars.

For repairing the walls of four workshops, at the same Armory, fifteen hundred dollars.

For constructing three new water wheels, and the machinery in the boring, turning, and stocking shops, and sinking flumes, at the said Armory, eight thousand four hundred dollars.

For completing the forging shop tilt hammer, and new workshop, at the same Armory, thirteen thousand three hundred dollars.

For the purchase of one square acre of land, with the improvements, adjoining the Arsenal near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, three thousand five hundred dollars.

For the purchase of forty-five acres of land adjoining the Watervliet Arsenal, New York, nine thousand dollars.

For the purchase of the right to the water power on the Shenandoah river, for the use of the United States' rifle factory which is established on that river, four thousand six hundred dollars.

For the repairs of the Spanish fort Marion, at St. Augustine, and for reconstructing the sea wall, to prevent the encroachment of the sea, at and near the same, twenty thousand dollars.

For the purchase of a site, and for erecting quarters and barracks for the United States' troops at Savannah, Georgia, thirty-five thousand dollars.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of War be, and he is hereby, authorized to apply to the purchase of the square acre of land above mentioned, a sum not exceeding three thousand five hundred dollars, out of the proceeds arising from the sales of certain lots of lands at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, belonging to the United States, which may be disposed of, under the provisions of the Act of Congress of the second of August, one thousand eight hundred and thirteen.

APPROVED, March 2, 1833.

ORDER, No. 20.

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, March 23d, 1833.

THE following General Regulation concerning the term of service and the pay of enlisted men of the Army, as established by acts of Congress, approved, March 2d, 1833, to increase the pay, and improve the condition of non-commissioned officers and private soldiers, is published to the Army, for general information, and the guidance of all whom it may concern :—

WAR DEPARTMENT,
March 23d, 1833.

I....THE term of service of enlisted men, is fixed by law at three years, and the premium heretofore allowed to officers, and the bounty to recruits for enlisting, are abolished, from and after the date at which the act of March 2d, 1833, may be received at the several military posts and recruiting stations. Recruits enlisted subsequently to the 2d of March for the period of five years, will be allowed to cancel such engagement—provided they consent to subscribe to a new enlistment for the term of three years, and refund the bounty received in conformity with the former law.

II....All non-commissioned officers of the army will receive the increased rate of pay from and after the 2d day of March, 1833; and all privates in the army enlisted for five years, who have "*served honestly and faithfully*," two or more years of their term of service, are entitled to receive *full pay*, at the rate of six dollars per month, from the 2d day of March, 1833, to the end of their enlistment.

III....Every private soldier enlisted for the term of three years, who serves "*honestly and faithfully*" the two first years of his enlistment, shall receive the $24 00 *retained pay*, at the next ensuing regular payment of the company; and during the third year of his term of enlistment, he will be entitled to *full pay*, at the rate of six dollars per month.

IV....Every able-bodied musician or private soldier who shall *re-enlist* into his former company or *Regiment*, within two months before, or one month after the expiration of any term of service, will be entitled to $12 00 *extra pay*, as a bounty, to be paid at the time he may so re-enlist, and to full pay, from and after the date of his re-enlistment; he will also be entitled to receive the pay and other allowances which shall accrue on account of the unexpired portion of his old enlistment at the period of its termination.

V....In all cases of *re-enlistment* prior to an unexpired term of service, the date of the new enlistment shall be substituted for the date of the old enlistment, and accordingly, will be inserted in the muster rolls, at the first muster thereafter.

VI....To ensure justice to the soldier, and to enable paymasters to ascertain the proper time at which his *full pay* should commence, and be continued; or, when entitled to receive the twenty-four dollars *retained pay*; and in case of *re-enlistment*, the private or musician, who may be entitled to twelve dollars *extra pay*, it is made the special duty of Company commanders, to note on their muster rolls opposite the name of the soldier, the appropriate remarks, as the case may be, to wit.—"*Full pay*, due, from ——:" "$24 00 *retained pay*, due:"—"Re-enlisted, $12 00 *extra pay*, due:"—"Entitled to *full pay*, from date of re-enlistment, and also, for —— month and —— days, on account of prior enlistment, which expired on the —— day of —— 183 ."

VII....The following table exhibits the established rates of pay allowed to non-commissioned officers and other enlisted soldiers of the Army, as authorized by the law to increase their pay, and by the act to raise the Regiment of Dragoons, respectively approved, the 2d day of March, 1833:

Table of established rates of Pay—March, 1833.

GRADE.	Pay of Artillery and Infantry Soldiers; and of Dragoons when serving on foot.			Pay of Dragoon Soldiers when mounted.		
	Pay per month.	Pay per annum.	Pay for 3 years.	Pay per month.	Pay per annum.	Pay for 3 years.
	$	$	$	$	$	$
To the Sergeant Major, Quartermaster Sergeant, Chief Musician, and Chief Bugler—each,	16	192	576	16	192	576
To the First Sergeant of a Company,	15	180	540	15	180	540
Ordnance Sergeants,	17*	204	612			
All other Sergeants—each,	12	144	432	12	144	432
Corporals,	8	96	288	10	120	360
Buglers,	6	72	216	9	108	324
Musicians,	6	72	216			
Farriers and Blacksmiths,	10	120	360	10	120	360
Artificers,	10	120	360			
Privates,	6	72	216	8	96	288

VIII.....The public interest no longer justifies the practice of granting discharges to soldiers of the Army, before the expiration of their enlistment. The term of service being now limited to *three years*, it is required that every citizen of the United States who voluntarily enlists, will enter the Army with a view to honorable employment, and a fixed determination to serve out the full period of his engagement:—Accordingly, the granting of discharges to soldiers prior to the expiration of service, by way of indulgence,—and, application for such discharges, are hereafter *prohibited*. Recruiting officers are commanded to explain these points fully to the recruit, before he enlists, and they are charged to make him distinctly understand, that if he should join the Army, he must serve the *full term of his engagement.*

BY ORDER OF MAJOR GENERAL MACOMB:

R. JONES,
Adjutant General.

* Being five dollars, in addition to his pay in the line, as authorized by the act, *approved*, April 5th, 1832.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

THE FIRST CAMPAIGN OF AN A. D. C.

The winter of 1812—13 resounded with the notes of war-like preparation. The inefficient and fruitless operations on the northern, and the disastrous and humiliating defeats on the northwestern, frontiers, had convinced Government that the next campaign must be commenced under new auspices, promising better success, or the country would sink under discouragement. A plan of operations was accordingly matured, which showed much skill and forecast, and seemed to require only a vigorous execution, in order to fulfil every hope which it inspired.

The line of frontiers on which the war was to be carried on, included lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence; and the two hostile territories were separated, in those parts, by these two geographical features. The British posts, beginning with fort George, at the mouth of the Niagara river, and running thence around lake Ontario, were of course more extended than ours, which, starting from the same point, ran on a comparatively strait line, forming, as it were, the chord of an arc, of which the British frontiers was the curve. This relative position of the two lines obviously gave to the Americans many advantages, which our commander in chief had the sagacity to perceive, and which he determined to improve. Sacket's Harbor was made the initial point of operations. This place was a centre, whence movements could radiate, with nearly equal facility, to most of the enemy's posts, leaving him in a state of uncertainty as to the real object, until timely intercommunication became impracticable. Each post had therefore to rely on itself, all chances of co-operation being excluded. It was known that our fleet would have, in the outset of the campaign, the ascendancy on lake Ontario. This fleet was at Sacket's Harbor, and was to be the auxiliary of the army movements. The scope of the plan was, to concentrate at Sacket's Harbor, during the winter, or early in the spring, a force adequate to attack York, U. C. one of the weakest of the enemy's posts, masking the design under a rumor that Kingston was the object, and thus keeping the garrison at the latter place immovable. At the same time, another concentration was to be made near the mouth of the Niagara river. York being captured, and its defences razed, a rapid transit of the lake was to be made to fort Niagara, and, all preparations being ready, the combined troops, were to attack fort George, the post opposite. This work being carried and destroyed in like manner, the next object was to be Kingston; then Montreal; and then—perhaps—Quebec.

This was the outline of the plan, having every military and judicious characteristic, and due feasibility. The ascendancy of the fleet, and ample transport, assured the utmost freedom of movement on the lake; and the forces concentrated were fully adequate, under all reasonable calculations, to the objects in view. The enemy could not concentrate his garrisons; for all three of his posts were nearly or quite equally assailable, and he must be equally strong and on the alert in all. Even if the garrison of York should escape—as, in all probability, it would—its accession to Kingston would be but inconsiderable;—and should the same result occur at fort George, all ulterior objects of the plan would doubtless be accomplished, before the retreating garrison, having the circuit of the lake to make, could come within the reach of co-operation below. The attack on Kingston might not have promised the same happy success. Having the fleet in her harbor, perhaps then nearly ready for active operations, it might even have been deemed advisable to pass that post by, and, embarking in the smaller craft, of which there was an abundance at hand, descend at once on Montreal, the grand and ultimate object of the campaign. The river St. Lawrence was at that time but feebly obstructed by defences, and Montreal might have been an easy prey to the force that would thus have been unexpectedly precipitated on her.

This general outline of the campaign was all an after acquisition. At the time, my humble view did not comprehend affairs on such a scale. I had known little save those vague details which might fall within the range of a young staff-officer, whose experience had not exceeded the boundaries of a maritime garrison.

Orders were received by the General, in whose suite I happened to be, to be on the frontiers, or "Lines," in April. In those days the geography, or topography, of that region was little known to the country at large. None of the maps pretended to more explicitness than to give Buffalo, Niagara, Oswego, &c. and stretched these few places over such a space, that one would be led to suppose they occupied the whole of it; and the public was quite in the dark with respect to those new villages and rivers which the incipient events of the war had already brought into notice. Sacket's Harbor, particularly, had been much talked of in the news-papers, but probably not one person in a million could have fixed it within a hundred miles of its locality. The map-makers were all busy, and endeavoring, by their hasty sketches, to keep pace with these developments; but, by the time one map would be out, indicating with satisfactory precision some obscure place which had just acquired a belligerent notoriety, another incognita, rising into importance in like manner, would demand an

amended edition. The place specified in the orders referred to, had not even this ephemeral distinction. It was in vain we examined maps, gazetteers, and tours: they gave no clue; and the best conjecture which could at last be resorted to, was, that it was some where on the inland frontiers. As the Head Quarters, whence the orders had emanated, were at Albany, it was deemed safe to proceed thus far, in expectation of being on the proper route.

It was no small business to prepare for this departure.—Thus far, the requisitions of service had been of easy fulfilment. To keep one's uniform well brushed, the sword and spurs bright, and be *toujours prét* for morning and evening parades, were all that had been required. We were often mounted, to be sure; but as our rides seldom took us beyond the reach of our wardrobe, our saddles had never known that unsightly appendix, named a valise; and, having a choice of days and roads, those only were selected, which brought no hazards of besprinkling from above or bespattering from beneath. The preparation for one of these holiday equitations, was no other than the superinduction of a pair of *cherrivallies*, which were worn, however, more for the bright buttons and other ornaments of which they seemed to authorize the display, than as a guard against defilements, of which there was not much apprehension under a bright sun and over dry roads. The task now in hand was far more difficult. An equestrian journey of some hundreds of miles called for much preparation. Every thing, however, that a limited foresight could suggest, was provided.

Such a start was an era in one's life. A desire to take leave of some friends who were off the direct route, led me to begin the journey in advance and alone. But this temporary deviation induced no necessity of encumbering my horse with unusual baggage. It is true my holsters had then a pair of pistols—an encumbrance that had not often burdened them before—their metalic buts peeping from under the bearskin in all the polish of unsullied service; and a sabre dangled at my side in the latitudinarian style of the day, banging my horse's flanks in a way that left the spurs little to do. In other respects there was not much the appearance of a campaigner about me, and, under the excitement natural to the moment, I put my horse on one of those hand-gallops, which was suited to his former brief excursions, rather than to the long march then before him. His pace was rather accelerated than moderated—as would have been proper on such an outset—by the bastinado applied by my sabre to his left flank, which he most naturally construed into a rebuke for his unsatisfactory speed. It was many miles before we came to a right understanding on this subject, or I bethought myself of the cause of his impatience; when, shortening the tethers of my belt, and

attaching my sabre to the waist, so that it became, literally, the "companion of my thigh," instead of my leg, moderation and an easy joy were restored.

The day was a true March day, not such a one as would have been selected by a volunteer equestrian. The wind, it blew high and blew strong, and the scudding clouds, even in the outset, threatened my bright equipment with a disaster, that is, a wetting, which they had thus far happily escaped.—My horse and myself had scarcely settled the difficulty about the sabre, and fallen into a good-humored movement, when a severe gust sent down a volume of rain, that menaced every thread on my back with immediate saturation. The first impulse was, agreeably to habits of more dainty times, to make rapidly for the nearest shelter, and avoid the coming foe of all starch and glitter. The second—which prevailed—was to brave the storm; and I continued to ride on in all the affectation of soldiership, imagining that each spectator of my contempt of a ducking, saw in it a presage of nobler daring. My horse, however, was far from sharing in my new-born ambition, and went by each shed with unfeigned reluctance, shaking the deluge from his flowing mane and tail with ill-concealed displeasure.

At Albany the chart of our destination was unfolded, and, after a delay of some days, we joined a cavalcade that was under orders for the same point. There were some General officers in it and their several suites, constituting a party of some military show and pretensions. The city of Albany was agape to see the exit, and, as some of the party had been residents there, and almost all had shared in the hospitality of the place, an interest was awakened by the event. Many a fair face was at the window, smiling encouragement, or looking regret, as admiration of the glories of war, or apprehension of its hazards, alternately prevailed. It was quite a gallant parade. Each horse, in anticipation of a long march, had been pampered into the most mettlesome mood, and danced and curvetted in all the spirit of high feeding. It had now become necessary to provide against temporary separations from the heavier baggage, which, being entrusted to a cumbrous wain, could not be supposed to keep up with our cavalry in expedition. For this purpose most of the saddles had a valise en croupe. It was the first time my horse had been condemned to such an imposition, and while we were moving through the streets, reconnoitring each window, to catch each smile on the cheek and tear in the eye of the fair spectators there, he revenged himself for the indignity by the most extravagant antics. As if determined to shake off the supernumerary burden, he more particularly exercised that part on which its weight rested, and kept his after heels flying in the air, to the utter

discomfiture of all grace and horsemanship. I had set my heart on caracoles, and every variety of curvet, as they would enable me to exhibit my skilful equitation; but no riding-master undertakes to provide rules for such an ultra prank as that of "kicking up." I lost every lady's glance, lost (for a moment) my beaver, and well nigh lost my seat. But that ultimatum of mortification was avoided. I clung to the saddle with all the energy of genicular power, and the restive animal, losing either his breath or his indignation, soon came to his equilibrium.

Our route lay along the Mohawk, and through those young towns between Utica and Buffalo, which then were only in their seedling state,—just germinating into sight, with every promise of growth and exuberance, but with the unsightly pod of originality still sticking to them. Every thing was in its inceptive stage, particularly the houses of entertainment. We reached Scheneatles one bright day just as the sun was setting. Some of us were at that age, when the heart, swelling and bubbling with romance, is ever ready to overflow. We looked on this beautiful lake with enthusiastic delight, and were willing to swear (having never been there) that Italy and Switzerland had nothing to equal it. Indeed by this time, having recovered from all the regrets that somewhat saddened the earlier part of the route, and looking forward, with kindling ardor, to the untried campaign before us, almost every object took the gay coloring of our own excited fancies. Our large cavalcade was often subjected to small accommodations, and we who were the junior members, always shared the fate of the "hindmost;" but neither coarse nor scanty fare, nor hard couches, could impair that gaiety of heart, which was nourished by inexhaustible spirits. We regarded all such things as a part of that professional ordeal, which it was our pride to pass through without flinching; and, having as yet experienced nothing more severe than these petty privations, we supposed we were already showing our powers of endurance.

Our party had all the gradations of character, from the revolutionary relic, down to the tyro, who now belted on his sword for the first time. We naturally fell into pairs, according to ages or tastes. A parity in these respects brought two of us much together. Our retrospects and prospects were much in unison. We had the same regrets and the same aspirations; and having exhibited some gallantry in one sphere, we hoped to show as much in another. But, among my comrade's accomplishments, he could not number that of good judgment in horseflesh. His steed had been purchased and had began the journey with fair promises; but farther trial developed a pulmonic infirmity, that gave his breathing, under

an ordinary amble, the sound of a high-pressure, and it was nick-named the steamboat. At that season the road was passable only in paths, and we generally moved tandem. This quadrupedal steamer, in such cases, was very often my file-closer, much more to my satisfaction than that of my horse, which generally manifested his displeasure at such a stern-chaser, by renewing his Albany antics, and throwing me on the pommel of the saddle. But every variety gave zest to the journey, and our cheerfulness of mind was never affected by any disturbances of the body.

Our down-lyings being generally in fatigue, our up-risings were not always the promptest, and some of us found little leisure for those duties of the toilette, which we had been habituated, on metropolitan stations, to regard as primary and indispensable. We had one among us, however, who, under all circumstances of exhaustion, weather, and limited accommodations, never neglected to pay that tribute of pomatum and powder to his head, which was authorized by a fashion that still fondly lingered about some votaries of *les bons vieux temps*. This was the more singular, as he was not an old man, although an elder soldier. Often after a night of mere mockery of rest, on a floor, which having had no acquaintance with the saw, but been rived out of the gnarled oak, still retained most of the protuberances and indentations naturally left by such a rude process, we forgot our ill-humor, in contemplating this courtly-looking head, whose pulverulent, farinaceous honors seemed to rise, each morning, immaculate from the pollutions of dirty roads and still more dirty inns. This head, which was borne aloft by a gallant spirit, was afterwards laid low in the imminent deadly breach, and was found, even among the reeking slain, still bearing the impress of a recent toilette. When this event happened, we, who had made ourselves merry at the expense of this cosmetic particularity, looked back to it with affectionate respect, as a trait of regularity of habits and independence of circumstances, which demanded of us at the time some such feeling.

When the party reached Cayuga lake, no such bridge was found there, as now spans its broad bosom. We were obliged to trust ourselves to boats and scows, that threatened to bring our campaign to a sudden close. It was a raw and gusty day, and had not Cæsar and his fortunes, in the shape of some of us, been on board, we must inevitably have found the honors we were seeking, only where Hotspur talked of diving for them; namely, in the bottomless deep. As we approached the western shore, a small crowd was seen at the landing, and an explosion of gunpowder soon showed that, if Cæsar were not among us, we had at least an Ex-magistrate of the State through which we were passing. The compliment was more

grateful to the man than to our horses, which, being unprepared for such a reception, were about to retreat overboard; and nothing probably prevented such accident on the water, but a counter accident on shore. The piece of ordnance used on this occasion had never perhaps been of the best, and had, on some previous 4th of July, by an unlucky explosion, been truncated almost to the trunnions, so that the cartridge was now easily deposited in its chamber by the hand, without any intervention of the ramrod. The report of the discharge was of course but small,—little more than if the powder had been burnt in an open kettle; and it would scarcely have reached the ears of our cavalry, had not a shout been thrown in at the moment by way of accompaniment. But the zeal of the gunner—who, laid claim to having lived, if not fought, in revolutionary times—waxed warm with the sound, which he doubtless attributed altogether to his gun, and in his anxiety to keep up the punctuality of the salute, forgetting to "swab out," he thrust in the second cartridge on the yet smouldering heel of its predecessor, which was returned on his hands while they were still pushing it home, and his face was not far off. The unfortunate veteran presented himself before the Ex-magistrate, whom he had delighted to honor, with every hair on his face and forehead singed off, so that he looked much like a plucked fowl, which had just passed through the blaze of a candle for the benefit of the pin-feathers. Some misfortunes are too ludicrous for grave sympathy. That of this extemporaneous artilleryman was of this character; and, as he stood, before the group, denuded of eyelashes, eyebrows, and foretop, his whole person begrimed, and his skin looking as if the contents of a pepperbox had been discharged into it, he found more merriment than condolence in the countenances around. The Ex-magistrate could not assauge the smart of his excoriation, but proposed to assuage his thirst in a bumper, commending his locks and lashes to time—and some of us added, (aside) macassar oil—for restoration.

We reached our place of destination in due time, and, when we beheld it, were no longer surprised that it had escaped the notice of map and gazetteer makers. Our large cavalcade found but poor entertainment for either man or horse; and it was with pleasure we soon heard orders to advance to Buffalo, which, by comparison, was a desirable place. This village had not yet been burnt by the enemy, but it had been sometime the encampment of friends, from whom, according to the adage, it had had occasion to pray for deliverance. The ruins of a comparatively large tavern led us to suppose that the enemy had certainly been at work there. But we soon learned that his irruptions had not extended thus far, and that the cause was to be found nearer home. It appeared that the

Publican of this establishment, had made some comparisons which proved odious to a company of volunteers, whose members were then expending their patriotism and patience afar from those comfortable firesides, which they had left in a spirit of zeal, that had no doubt been well cooled by a hyemation on the frontiers. Or else, like Hudibras' dagger, which

> ——————for lack
> Of something else to hew and hack,

eat itself up with rust; these candidates for fame, becoming impatient for the want of opportunity of meeting the enemy, may have determined to have a little belligerent exercise on their friends. At all events, this obnoxious house was said to have been circumvested one night by this restive band, which left not one piece of timber on another; and when we arrived, a small *shantee*, erected over a part of the foundation, was standing as a memorial on the ruins. But this shantee proved a true Phœnix. It was already a matter of boast, that the *juleps* muddled and fuddled there, were bringing in a revenue that would soon restore the demolished structure;* and the prediction was fulfilled.

Soon after our arrival, all the General officers and their suites, rode down to Black Rock, a place a few miles below the strait of Niagara, nearly opposite to fort Erie, the British work. There were two ways leading to it,—one by the beach, within full view and gunshot of the enemy, and the other somewhat inland, and generally screened by woods. It would seem to have been most prudent and natural, under all circumstances, to have taken the latter, as the party was somewhat numerous, and evidently, to the most distant observation, of some rank. But, perhaps a little in the spirit of gasconade, it was determined to take the former. The party appeared to attract much attention from the opposite shore, and a temptation *may* have been felt to punish our ostentation by a few shots from the ordnance that commanded the beach. Luckily, the courtesy of war prevailed. Had we known, however, at the time, what an act of discourtesy on our side had to be atoned for, we might have seriously apprehended such a chastisement. It was among the boasts that subsequently met our ears, that in the winter just past, when it was known that a dance was on foot within fort Erie, a small party of Americans had been permitted to advance on the ice, which then bridged the head of the strait, in order that a volley might be fired in the neighborhood of the fort, in the hope of producing some

* This tavern was rebuilt of brick; and the owner used to say, that he had "sold a julep for every brick in it."

disturbance among the merry-makers. It was believed however, by the more generous-minded, who saw something very anti-chivalrous in such a practical joke, that, either through the adverse wind which prevailed at the time, or the prudence of the officer who led the detachment, and perhaps did not wish to peril too much in such an adventure, and therefore discharged his scare-crow volley out of hearing, the festivity went on without interruption. The forbearance of the British, and observance of the liberal rules of warfare, made a pleasing impression on our minds. Another incident occurred during the day, which strengthened this impression. Most of the party dined with the commanding officer at Black Rock—that accomplished civilian and gallant officer, although, as Bladensburg perhaps afterwards proved, no General—and after dinner, a bugler was placed on the bank, and directed to play one of his calls. As soon as he had finished, a bugler on the opposite shore was heard to answer with all the precision of an echo. This was only a symphony to a most interesting rivalry between the two buglers, which ranged through the whole catalogue of calls and marches belonging to that martial instrument. We may not be ashamed to admit, that, in this instrumental war, we came off second best; for the British buglers excelled, and we had then little skill in martial music, save on the spirit-stirring drum and the ear-piercing fife.

As soon as boats could be prepared, most of the troops in this quarter moved down the strait, in order to concentrate at fort Niagara, agreeably to the plan we have before adverted to. The intervening islands so masked the preparation and movement, that the enemy probably had no suspicion of them until the whole flotilla was on the descent, and beyond the reach of his guns. At all events, no annoyance was attempted, and the flotilla reached Schlosser without any accident, where the troops encamped. As we were then in the neighborhood of the falls, some of us rode on to an inn there, in order to be in readiness to view them early the next morning. It was sometime after dark when we arrived at the inn, and curiosity was left to moderate its impatience as it best could. But, although it had no avenue through the eye, it found the ear open, which greedily took in all the *audible* characteristics of the cataract; and, listening all night to the thundering serenade, the eye kept open for company, and fancy was not dormant. The house we occupied was none of the firmest, and might have been shaken by a less powerful concussion; and trembled under that around it, like a grist-mill, with all its wheels in motion. My long vigils were filled up by attempts of fancy to portray the mighty cause.—La Houtan, after ocular demonstration, estimated the plunge to be seven hundred feet. Had he made the estimation under

my circumstances, he would probably have added another nought to his figures. It would be difficult to say what were the exaggerations of such a sleepless and tantalizing night; but it may easily be supposed that they exceeded all realities. Such was the case. I was disappointed in the morning; and would advise all others to see the falls before they sleep.

That day we reached fort Niagara.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

THE SURVEY OF THE COAST.

This work, so necessary to our country in a commercial as well as a military point of view, and in many other respects so capable of producing the most important results, is once more committed to the hands in which it had been placed by President Jefferson, with whom the measure originated, and was one of the many exalted conceptions that characterised his mind.

The President has again appointed for its execution under the reviving law of last year, Mr. Hassler, who had begun it in 1817, under the law of 1807, and the Treasury Department has now, as it formerly had, the direction of it. We may therefore hope, that the testimony given by Mr. Jefferson to the work in the earliest stage, that "it would have been an honourable monument of the state of science at this early period of our history," will at a future day apply to its continuance, as resumed since last autumn, and that it will not again by any fatality be damped by the "regret that it was not carried into execution" which Mr. Jefferson added to his approbation.

The interruption of this work in 1818, so shortly after its commencement, permitted only the first scientific bases to be established; and thus deprived the country for many years of the advantageous results which it would have yielded, had it been allowed to proceed; an effect that is seriously felt in all the public Departments, which were to have enjoyed the benefits of all its results. We hope that permanent stability will now be secured to the arrangements, so judiciously made by the President and the Treasury Department, for restoring the undertaking to its original plans, principles, and mode of proceeding; by which the country will reap the benefit, not only of an accurate chart of our whole coast, to the want of which so many shipwrecks may be attributed; but likewise obtain all the necessary data for the defence of the same, and be possessed of that auxiliary information which must form the foundation of well directed improvements in our ports and harbors, where they may be needed.

Already in the beginning of the last century, the men of science of France prevailed upon their Government to give an impulse to the attainment of an accurate knowledge of the figure of the Earth by trigonometric measurement of degrees at the Equator, and on the Arctic Circle, a branch of science so indispensable to navigation.

The results that followed, and the prospects of the many useful accessories that accompany such works, could not otherwise than invite to a further prosecution of similar works: they promised the means of obtaining that object so much desired—viz: an uniform standard of weights and measures, taken from nature, such as would be common to all nations of the globe, as it would have nothing of the selfish, abitrary nationality of all other weights and measures, none of which are based upon an actual connected system and natural unit.

The expected renovation of the whole civil establishment of France, induced her scientific men to apply to their Government for the means of making an extensive triangulation, with a view to the nearer determination of the elements required for that purpose, as well as for the science in general, and the various objects of public utility to which it would apply.

The trigonometric junction of the observatories of Paris and Greenwich, by operations carried on simultaneously in England and France, by Gen. Roy, and by Cassini, had preceded these works so immediately as to be hardly completed, when those so amply recorded in the "Base da Systém Metrigue" were begun.

These were the impulses given to the Mathematical Sciences and the Arts connected with them, which in theory as well as in application, elevated them so eminently as to occupy the most distinguished position in the civilization of our present age; and securing their duration through all the changes that the political connections of Europe have undergone for the last forty years, have now formed one of the bands of union between nations.

When by the operations of the metric system, France had a meridional arc of 12 degrees measured trigonometrically, and England by those of the junction of the observatories of Paris and Greenwich, a well established base line and series of triangles, that presented a ground work available for an accurate survey of the whole country, the direct usefulness of their extension to objects of public administration, induced both countries to obtain by triangulation, accurate maps of their countries and their coasts.

Though France had already, by the map of Cassini, a specimen of trigonometrical surveying, superior to what any other country possessed at that time, yet a new, full triangulation, with the additional improvements of the times was made over

the whole country; and Great Britain by a triangulation from the Isle of Wight to the northernmost of the Shetland Islands, surveyed all England and Scotland, and is now extending it over Ireland.

During the extensive conquests of France, she extended her triangle system over all the countries she invaded, as far as circumstances permitted; and the great utility of the system was so apparent as to induce the subsequent Government, after the French had withdrawn themselves, to continue, extend, and work out in detail all that was left to be done; and an union of international feeling has actually been formed, which in a degree assists in assuaging the acrimonies so commonly engendered by long wars.

We have now close series of triangles, extending from Formentera, in the Mediterranean, to Unst, one of the northernmost of the Shetland Islands, from the South end of Naples to Sweden, from Bordeaux to Dalmatia, from Brest to Czernowitz, on the Turkish frontier. Russia is engaged in the trigonometric survey of the Baltic, and joins Prussia, whose triangulations join the present limits of France; all Holland has been triangulated, and all the main triangle chains just enumerated, are filled up with secondary triangles, to the minute details, from the Mediterranean to the Baltic, and from the Atlantic to the interior of Russia, including all the coasts.

With such examples before us, in confirmation of the undoubted utility of such works, and the correctness and universal approbation of the trigonometric operations, we may with safety and pride, step forward and engage in a similar operation upon our own hemisphere; by which we may, in some degree, place ourselves at the head of the improvements of this continent: indeed in this position, in a line of scientific improvements so closely connected with the public weal, it becomes our duty to take the lead.

Considering the uncertain results, and the ultimately greater expense which will attend partial and unconnected surveys of the coasts, there is not the slightest occasion for a Government like that of the United States, at this time, to consider the expenditures necessary to carry into execution a survey, upon the principles that are now, and were originally, in contemplation; one which will bear an honorable comparison with all the above quoted European works: and if with the indisputable usefulness of the work before us, and an overflowing Treasury, of which we complain,—if with the ample facilities which the present state of the mathematical sciences afford, and while we stand so much in need of a survey of the coast, for the safety of our navigation, and the defence of our shores, we refuse to engage in its execution, and to give it that character which will make it permanently useful and honora-

ble, how can we excuse ourselves, in the eyes of the civilized world?

We cannot therefore doubt, that the principles and regular progress of the work, are permanently fixed, and that they will gradually bring us results at once useful and honorable; augmenting in extent as the work progresses: for this, the fitness of Mr. Hassler to the task, appears to give us the necessary assurance; as the principles, organizations, and mode of operating in his former work, have been unanimously acknowledged by the most eminent men of science of that time, as of the first character for the intended purposes.

We have every reason to expect that the result of this important scientific operation will reflect great honor on the National character.

MEMOIR ON GUNPOWDER.

(Continued from page 96.)

SECTION VI.—PROOF OF GUNPOWDER.

163. Gunpowder is invested with difficulties, from the earliest stage of its manufacture to the very last result obtained by trial, for ascertaining its explosive powers. And the many methods that have been invented, and that are still in use for proving it, constitute a sufficient testimony of the difficulty attending this indispensable, final check upon its manufacture.

164. To conduct proof trials with skill, especially of gunpowder of different kinds, and of unknown systems of manufacture, a comprehensive knowledge of its nature and action is necessary, both in order to guide the experiments to results that are satisfactory, as well as to deduce from them conclusions that are substantial, and which may be with confidence depended on. In proving gunpowder, as has just been observed, extraordinary discrepancies sometimes take place that seem to defy reconciliation: and indeed the results are often so capricious, singular, and unexpected, as to make it sometimes altogether impossible to account for them. But though this be the case, I yet think there can be but little doubt that no apparent anomaly is an absolute departure from fixed principles, but rather an effect which results as harmoniously from established causes, as any phenomenon that occurs among the better known, and more widely diversified operations of nature. The

difficulty lies in discovering the causes of irregularity;—to apply to them known and acknowledged laws adequate to their solution would not probably be difficult, were they but once discovered.

165. I am of opinion that the true principles on which gunpowder ought to be tested or tried, as to real strength and quality, have been much misunderstood, or, if known, the knowledge has been far from general. The French certainly do not appear to have hit upon the true method, by confining gunpowder closely, as in their mortar eprouvettes; for in these instruments there is not a very material difference of range between powder which is very good and that which is very bad. The English government method of proof approximates much more closely to true principles, and is certainly better adapted to show the real quality of powder than the French eprouvette. I shall not however anticipate our subject; these relative methods will come in due course under consideration. It is nevertheless a matter of first-rate importance to determine what the particular manner of proof is which may be depended on, and I hope to establish that point in the course of the present section.

166. It would be a singular advantage if any single trial could be devised which, in itself, would be decisive and satisfactory; and calculated to shew accurately the real explosive force, as well as the practical and available effect of gunpowder; a method on which dependence could be placed, as being indicative of the general consequences that would result in practice, whatever might be the nature, quantity, or quality of the powder employed. But I know not of any one single experiment that possesses the property of exhibiting these points satisfactorily, or even in a manner approximating to truth. The general objection against every single existing mode of trial is, that whatever be the result it may give when two powders of different systems of manufacture are compared together by it, accordant results do not follow if the same powders be tried, generally, with service charges, in the several denominations of ordnance used in war.

167. The practical artillerist, on whom usually devolves the office of ascertaining the proof range of gunpowder, will perhaps wish for simplicity, and for the specification of some single easy trial by which he may ascertain not only the actual range of powder, but judge of its quality or capability of producing any particular given effect he may require. I have just stated that I know of no such trial. Such knowledge can be ascertained only by actual experiment with the powder he has to make use of. Its range-distances must be determined from practice. And this remark, I apprehend, will hold good universally, whether good gunpowder be used or bad. To ascertain its range-distances the artillery officer must make the ex-

periment for himself, and it is more than probable, it is almost an absolute certainty, that he will have to do this as often as he uses a different gunpowder, and a different piece of ordnance. Gunpowders will not range alike, nor will different pieces of ordnance, though of the same denomination, range alike (155); and therefore the mere proof of gunpowder can afford no further criterion for the guidance of actual service, than as it gives the range-distance of the particular charge, in that particular piece of ordnance in which the proof was made.

168. Let me be allowed here to offer an especial caution.—Equal range has often been mistaken for equal quality.—This is a great error, if applied universally. I shall hereafter, as we come to them, specify the particular cases in which, if different gunpowders range equally, they may be regarded as equally good: but, to establish the position that the distance to which any powder may project a shot or shell is not a criterion of its quality,* unless under particular circumstances, I shall give the comparative results of several experiments made between the English and the Bombay powders; the range of the English powder being taken in every case as unity, and the range of the Bombay powder reduced to its corresponding fraction; observing only that I commence with one trial in which the Bombay powder ranged equal to the English.

DESCRIPTION OF ORDNANCE.	WEIGHT OF Powder.		WEIGHT OF Shell.		English cannon powder	Bombay cannon powder
	lbs.	*oz.*	*lbs.*	*oz.*	*Relative Ranges.*	
24-pounder iron gun	8	—	23	10	1.00	1.00
8-inch French eprouvette . .	—	3	64	—	1.00	.88
Pendulum eprouvette . . .	—	2	—	—	1.00	.76
10-inch iron mortar	2	—	85	8	1.00	.49
8-inch ditto	—	2	64	—	1.00	.28
Ditto ditto	1	—	41	10	1.00	.24
5½-inch mortar	—	2	16	—	1.00	.22
10-inch iron mortar	—	2	96	—	1.00	.13
8-inch French eprouvette . .	—	½	64	—	1.00	.09

169. In the course of this Section, the whole or the greater part of the actual ranges of the above trials will be alluded to and specified in illustration of certain positions. I have preferred the decimal notation of them here for the convenience of comparison, and to shew that though a bad powder, which in one case ranges as far as an acknowledged good powder, yet in another method of trial ranges not a half, or a quarter, or

* See also paragraphs 154, 155, 181, 184, 204.

a tenth, but actually only an eleventh part (0.09) of the distance of the same powder to which it was equal when used in large quantity. I scarcely think it possible to give a more powerful or satisfactory confirmation of the point to be established; nor can there be any thing clearer than the inference to be drawn from it, viz. the circumspection required in decdiing on the quality of different gunpowders from particular trials. It is evident that with a knowledge of this fact certain methods of proof could be selected, in which inferior gunpowder, especially if unpressed and unglazed, would give as high a range as the best, and with all the details of the experiment on either side conducted with perfect fairness; but the results of such a proof would be most delusive.

DEFINITIONS.

170. Before we proceed further, it may perhaps be necessary to define two or three terms hereafter to be used in a more particular and determinate sense. They relate to those points to which the attention should be expressly directed in proof trials of gunpowder, viz.

1. Its real inherent strength.
2. Its practical or available force.
3. Its manipulative quality.

171. The absolute inherent strength of gunpowder is not perhaps to be ascertained at all, by trial, in any instrument, or piece of ordnance in common use. Bad gunpowder, by exploding slowly, would require to be confined by an enormous superincumbent weight, in order that the whole might, if possible, be kindled before the resisting obstacle began to move. In a proof of this nature, a particular kind of instrument must be used; and there are grounds for belief, that in such a mode of trial, the results would depend more upon the chemical constitution of the powder, than on its manipulation, which is directly contrary to the usual results of practice. By ascertaining the real inherent strength of gunpowder is therefore intended, *that* mode of proof, or those methods of proof, by common ordnance, in which gunpowder of good quality will produce a much higher range with a small charge than bad gunpowder, although the latter may, and will in some particular cases, and under certain circumstances, range as far as the former, or further.

172. The practical or available force of gunpowder means, in other words, the absolute ranges it will give in ordnance and artillery of all sizes and denominations, with all the diversified multiplicity of charges used in actual service. The ascertain-

ment of these range-distances belongs to the department of practical gunnery. The proof of gunpowder aims only at an approximation as to general effect. Actual range-distance may therefore be considered synonymous to the term, practical or available force.

173. The manipulative quality of gunpowder is an expression employed to include several ideas, viz. the purity of the ingredients; the perfection or imperfection of their mixture; the degree of their incorporation; and the specific gravity of the powder. How the whole of these points are to be ascertained or judged of, will be shewn hereafter.

174. We may now proceed to examine the merits or defects of the various instruments at present in use for proving gunpowder; and first,

OF VERTICAL EPROUVETTES.

175. In the common vertical eprouvette the powder acts by sudden blast and impulse: the superincumbent weight immediately rises, the flame escapes, and a great part of the strength of the powder is thereby lost. The established objection against this method of proof is, that the powder cannot act by its pressure, and that therefore the instrument is not adapted to exhibit accurate results. Four drachms (109 grains) of powder, in the vertical eprouvette used daily in His Majesty's works at Waltham Abbey, raised the resisting weight, about 25 lbs., on an average 3 inches and an half high.

176. That fired powder might act by its pressure, and that the foregoing objection might be obviated, I constructed a vertical eprouvette on the principle of the common brass mortar, having a cylindric chamber sufficient to contain 100 grains weight of powder. The superincumbent weight, or resistance to be raised, was 500,000 grains, upwards of 71 lbs. avoirdupois. It was made to slide in upright guides, and had a plug below it that fitted the bore of the eprouvette as nearly air-tight as possible. The idea I had was, that by firing a charge of only 10 or 20 grains, this instrument would shew the absolute inherent force of any kind of gunpowder; and that, as the resistance exceeded the weight of the powder in so very large a proportion, it would afford great accuracy of result. But my expectation was disappointed, for the results were in proportion as variable as in common trials, and the ranges such as could not be depended on. I therefore abandoned it.

177. This eprouvette, however, afforded convincing testimony of the immense increase of effect produced by closely confining gunpowder, as well as the loss of power occasioned by windage. We have seen (175) that 109 grains of His Majesty's powder ranged 3 inches and a half high; only 10 grains in

this instrument raised a threepound ball greater weight more than 12 inches. But the experiment is perhaps worth being recorded.

HIS MAJESTY'S RIFLE POWDER.	Eprouvette as usually air-tight, in practice.	Eprouvette with some diminutive perceptible windage.	Proportion of the superincumbent weight to the powder.
1.	2.	3.	4.
10 grains	12.70 Inches	3.4 Inches	as 50,000 to 1
20 ditto	31.48 ditto	19.15 ditto	as 25,000 to 1
30 ditto	46.07 ditto	27.80 ditto	as 16,667 to 1

178. The first column shews the weight of the powder; the second, the range of the eprouvette when air-tight; the third, the range when it had a little windage; and the fourth, the number of times the weight to be raised was greater than the weight of the powder. A comparison of the second and third columns, shews the great loss of power that arose from an alteration in the plug, which reduced it to the one-hundredth part of an inch smaller than the bore. The difference of effect produced by powder in this eprouvette, and by the 109 grains in the common eprouvette, is exceedingly disproportionate, and the loss of power, by a very trifling degree of windage, remarkable.

179. But the chief objection against this instrument, and I apprehend against all instruments constructed on the same principle, is, that the results given are not to be depended on,* and the discrepancies are such as to form part and parcel of those discordancies which have before been alluded to (162, 164).—I think this representation is fully borne out by the following memorandum.

ORDNANCE.	WEIGHT OF		CANNON POWDERS.		
	Powder.	Shell.	English.	Allahabad.	Bombay.
	grains	*lbs.*			
Vertical Eprouvette, see par. 176	30	—	30. in.	34. in.	28.8 in.
	oz.				
8-inch mortar eprouvette,	3	64	288 yds.	217 yds.	255 yds.
5½ inch mortar.	2	16	175 "	134 "	38 "

* "Nothing could be more deceptive than the former mode (of proving gunpowder) by the vertical eprouvette, in which a soft and rotten grained

180. These are all the same opponent powders, but although the vertical eprouvette represents that of Allahabad to be superior to the English, the other two trials shew it to be inferior. Observe also the high range of the Bombay powder in this, as well as in the mortar eprouvette; and again, notice how discordant the result is which it gives in the 5½-inch mortar.—I could multiply examples of these discrepancies, but let these suffice to shew that the vertical eprouvette exhibits fallacious results.

MORTAR EPROUVETTES.

181. French mortar eprouvettes are very much like the common eight-inch brass mortar, only that they have small chambers which contain no more than a given small quantity of powder; for instance, two or three ounces; and from the quantity which they contain comes their denomination, the two-ounce or three-ounce eprouvette. The shot is of brass, or of gun-metal, fashioned accurately to the shape of a sphere; it weighs sixty-four pounds,* and has one-tenth of an inch windage. These instruments produce a high range, on the principle that the force of gunpowder is proportionate to the space it occupies (142); but they are not adapted to ascertain the true strength of gunpowders of different modes of manipulation, as the following proofs testify, viz.

POWDER.	WEIGHT	ORDNANCE.	RANGE.
	ounces.		
Bishop's rifle	2	2-oz. eprouvette	215 yards
English L. G.	—	64-lb. brass ball	208 "
Bishop's rifle	2	8-in. mortar	75 "
English L. G.	—	64-lb. brass ball	117 "
Bishop's rifle	2	5½-in. mortar	130 "
English L. G.	—	16-lb. shell	211 "

182. The first of these trials only was made in the mortar eprouvette; the others are inserted for comparison. The powders were the same in each trial. It will be seen how different the results of the mortar trials are, compared with that shewn by the eprouvette. It is not necessary here to offer any comment on this discrepancy, my object being merely to shew that these eprouvettes give results which cannot be depended on.

powder would produce a much greater effect than the hard and good serviceable powder."—*Lieut-Gen. Congreve.*

* This precise weight varies in different instruments, and so does the degree of windage.

183. There appears, however, to be an exception to this remark; but the exception constitutes a departure from the original design of the instrument.—If a very small charge of powder be used, these eprouvettes may be employed to ascertain the real inherent force, as well as the practical effect of gunpowder. I speak without the support of direct experiment; but I think it probable that when these instruments are fired with their full charge, they may possibly exhibit the general effects of gunpowder, when it is used in actual service, in field-pieces, and in large ordnance. I speak only from analogy, but I think it likely a full charge would pretty nearly indicate the relative practical ranges of different gunpowders in artillery—that with their chamber one-half or one-third filled, they would shew the relative ranges in large mortars with medium charges, and that fired with only half an ounce of powder, they might be very well used for ascertaining the absolute inherent force and explosive quality of gunpowder generally. It would be well worth the trouble of the experiment, to ascertain if these ideas be at all borne out by actual practice.

184. These eprouvettes constitute the national system of proof in France; and they are also used in different parts of the Continent of Europe. With the modifications just suggested, I think they may be usefully employed for ascertaining the quality of gunpowder; but in the manner they are always used, I have very substantial grounds for asserting that they give unsatisfactory and false results. In the instance of unpressed and unglazed powder tried against powder of greater density, they exhibit a range frequently in favour of the unpressed powder (181), while other trials, on which dependence may be placed, plainly testify its inferiority; nay, reduce but the charge to a low degree, and the same instrument will then bear the same testimony also. The following trials may be adduced in support of what has been stated in this paragraph, and I think that to reconcile their variations would be found extremely puzzling.

CANNON POWDER.	WEIGHT OF		ENGLISH, 1813.	MADRAS, 1825.	BOMBAY, 1825.
	Powder.	Shell.			
	oz.	*lbs.*			
8-inch eprouvette .	3	64	288 yds.	279 yds.	255 yds.
Ditto	1	—	57 do.	50 do.	23 do.
Ditto	½	—	33 feet.	15 feet.	3 feet.

UNITED STATES' NAVY YARDS.

RANK.	Portsmouth, N H	Boston.	New York.	Philadelphia.	Washington.	Norfolk.	Pensacola.
YARD.							
Commandant	W M Crane		I Chauncey	J Barron	I Hull	L Warrington	A J Dallas
Master Command't	G W Storer	J Smith	M C Perry	W M Hunter	J H Aulick	E A F Vallette	L Rousseau
Senior Lieutenant	T Crabb	E B Babbit	J A Wish	S Breese	J B Hull	F Forrest	W Taylor
Surgeon	J Cornick	G S Sproston	J S Wily	W P C Barton	T J Boyd	J Cowdery	B F Bache
Assistant Surgeon	None	A G Gambrill	T L Smith	None	None	G W Palmer	None
Purser	J Wilson	W S Rogers	J M Halsey	T Breese	T Winn	J Brooks	J H Terry
Sailing Master	J Mull	R Knox	F H Ellison	J Ferguson	M Dove	J B Potts	N Warren
Chaplain	None	J P Fenner	A Searle	None	W Ryland	T J Harrison	None
RENDEZVOUS.							
Commander	None	T H Stevens	J D Sloat	T M Newell	None	J H Clack	None
Lieutenant	None	H B Sawyer F Ellery	H Paulding H W Ogden	F Buchanan J B Montgomery	None	W H Gardner W M Armstrong	None
Surgeon	None	B R Tinslar	D S Edwards	W Smith	None	J R Chandler	None
RECEIVING VESSEL							
Commander	None	W V Taylor	W J McCluney	C Gauntt	None	A Fitzhugh	None
Surgeon	None	E Borland, Ass't.	S Rapalje	None	None	None	None
Purser	None	None	C O Handy	None	None	D Mc F Thornton	None
CIVIL LIST.							
Navy Agent	J Laighton	D D Brodhead	J K Paulding	H Toland	E Kane	N Legrand	B C Willis
Naval Storekeeper	R H Ayer	G Bates	T Craven	R Kennedy	C Selden	G Galt	R Joyner
Naval Constructor	J Floyd	J Barker	S Hartt	None	W Doughty	F Grice	None
Clerk of the Yard	J P Simes	S Etheridge	G W Lee	H S Crabb	E W Clark	J L King	D Munro
Command't's Clerk	J Christie	J Etheridge	H J Willett	A Wolff	J Etheridge	S B Brown	A Breese
HOSPITAL.							
Surgeon	None	None	W Swift	T Dillard	None	T Williamson	J Hulse
Assistant Surgeon	None	None	S Sharp	S W Ruff	None	W G Micks	W A W Spots-[wood

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

NAUTICAL REMINISCENCES.

Commercial pursuits, while they have added to the comforts, and contributed to enlighten the great mass of human beings, have, on the other hand, been fruitful of individual misery. If enterprise in the pursuit of wealth has aroused the energies of the human character, and illustrated it by acts of heroism and exalted courage, so has it, by the successful completion of its projects, tempted the cupidity of the desperate, the indolent, and the lawless.

The virtues and vices of the old world have been gradually extended to every quarter of the earth; arraying the incongruities of individual character, and placing them, as it were, in contrast with the opposite attributes of remote climes, and the simplicity or rudeness of an untaught people. The Pacific Ocean, and those countries washed by its waters, may, in the history of events which have there occurred, illustrate the truth of these observations. What other portions of the globe where nature has been more profuse! A genial sun, and a fruitful clime had lent their influence to form the character of the inhabitants. Mild, generous, contented, ages had passed away, leaving them to the enjoyment of those blessings; but the first sail from remote and civilized countries was the sign, which, like the finger of Time, has pointed onward ever since to change—unceasing change. Freedom has been converted into bondage, smiles to tears, and abundance to want. The quiet villages of the natives have given place to noisy towns of trade, the light canoe to the freighted ship, or armed corsair, and every scene assumed new features, and acknowledged new masters.

It was in these seas, in the course of my professional duties in the year 182—, that I became acquainted with the history of a young officer of the Chilian Navy, whose life appears to have been attended with so many singular and romantic incidents, that the narration of a few of them may prove interesting to some of your readers.

The year previous to our arrival in the Pacific Ocean, the coast of Chili had been infested by a gang of freebooters, at the head of which were two fearless and enterprising chiefs, named Benanides and Martinillo. An expedition, fitted out by the Chilian Government to destroy or disperse them, resulted in the capture of Benanides and several of the gang, who were sent to St. Jago, and were there immediately executed in the public *plaza;* but Martinillo, with a number of his men, escaped in whale-boats, and continued to hover about the coast to the annoyance of commerce, and to elude the vigilance of his pursuers.

Among those sent in search of him, was the young officer to whom I have alluded; a native of Scotland, and formerly of the British Navy. He was in command of a fine sloop of war, and being of a bold, active, and enterprising character, he pursued the object of his search with the greatest zeal and diligence. In the course of his frequent communication with the shore, he at length ascertained from some fishermen, that a party of men, in boats corresponding to those in possession of Martinillo, had landed but a short time previously at the mouth of the river Maule. For thence Capt. R — immediately made sail, and approaching the place cautiously in the night, he manned his boats, headed the expedition himself, and at an early hour of the morning, pulled for the shore, where he landed soon after daylight so suddenly, as to completely surprise the pirates, who, until that moment, thought themselves perfectly secure. They at first attempted to fly, but finding their retreat cut off by some horsemen of the country, with whom Capt. R — had previously arranged to meet him at a specified hour, they turned, determined to make a desperate resistance, and either cut their way to their boats, or sell their lives dearly. Martinillo himself singled out the one, who, by his authority, seemed to command his pursuers, and darted towards him with the spring and ferocity of a tiger. Capt. R —, by no means intimidated by the muscular form and fierce onset of the pirate, advanced boldly to meet him, single handed; but two marines, who had followed their commander closely, observed the pirate's threatening movement, and levelling their muskets, they interrupted the rencontre by firing two musket balls directly through his body. At the same moment, one of the horsemen threw a *lassau* over his neck, and clapping spurs to the horse, threw him to the ground, and continued to drag him for a considerable distance. One of the sergeants, by way of completing the work of death, ran up to him as he lay prostrate, and with the butt of his musket struck him a blow on the forehead, which seemed sufficient to have shattered his head in pieces. In the mean time, the remainder of the gang was so spiritedly attacked in front by the sailors, and in rear by the horsemen, with that apparently harmless, though most effective weapon, the *lassau*, that several of them were killed or wounded, and all the others made prisoners. Capt. R — now returned to his ship, and immediately had the prisoners assembled on the upper deck, where he caused them all to be executed, by being placed, one by one, in the bow-port, and shot by a file of marines. Thus terminated the career of this band of pirates, which had so long spread terror along the coast of Chili; and all danger to commerce being now at an end, Capt. R — returned to Valparaiso with his ship, where he received the most complimentary acknowledgments of his valuable services, both from

the government and the commercial community. The services of the squadron being now no longer required, they were laid up in ordinary, and the officers left without employment, and many of them without means. The government was greatly in arrears to them, but always much more profuse in promises than in payment.

It was several months after this period that Capt. R —, finding there was still no prospect of a demand for his services, and being almost without funds, resolved to try the success of a sealing expedition to the Island of Mocha, situated near the coast of Chili, about 80 miles north of Valdivia, and 300 miles south of Valparaiso. With this view he purchased a whale-boat, provisions, and the necessary implements for sealing; and made an arrangement with one of his brothers, and five good men, to join him in the undertaking. Having completed his preparations, he bargained with the captain of a coasting schooner to land him on his voyage to Valdivia. He accordingly embarked, and had a good run to the Island, but on approaching the shore, the surf was found to be so heavy, that the provisions could not be landed, without incurring great risk. It was therefore determined to take in the boat a sufficient supply for a few days; and the captain of the schooner promised to return from Valdivia, as soon as he had delivered the other part of his cargo, by which time, he thought, the weather would probably change, so as to enable him to land the stores. With this arrangement Capt. R — and his crew left the schooner, and proceeded to the Island, where the surf was running at an alarming height; but by skilfully taking advantage of the *third breaker*, the light whale-boat rode over it with the buoyancy of a gull, and landed safely on the beach.

The boat was immediately hauled up beyond the reach of the surf—a tent pitched, and every arrangement made for their comfort, which the absence of their stores and furniture would admit of. Several days passed off in preparation for their future operations; the wind had become moderate, the weather mild, and the sea abated; but still there were no signs of the return of the schooner, and they began to grow apprehensive for the fate of their provisions. The low state of their temporary supply, admonished them that it was full time to look to their situation; therefore Capt. R — proposed to his brother to take the boat and crew and go over to Valdivia, to ascertain what had become of the schooner, and in the event of the captain's dishonesty, to make such other arrangements as might become necessary for the prosecution of their enterprise.

The brother immediately departed on his errand, leaving Capt. R — alone on the Island; and as the weather was perfectly clear, and the breeze moderate, every thing promised a speedy voyage. R — endeavoured to while away his lonely

hours by rambling about the Island, and looking at the fine horses which there run wild in numerous herds; but at the end of the third or fourth day, he began to cast anxious glances in the direction of Valdivia, hoping every moment to see the small white sail of his whale-boat on her return. Several days passed, during which he kept a constant look-out; but still the close of evening brought him nothing but disappointment.—His anxiety increased with delay, and painful apprehensions arose in his mind, as to the probable fate of his brother and boat's crew. In this state of feeling he sauntered along towards the top of the Island, until he reached one of its highest points, which gave him an extended view in the direction of Valdivia; but no object was to be seen, except the blue outline of the coast, and still farther in the distance, the snow-capt summits of the lofty Cordilleras. He then cast his eye round the horizon, but saw nothing but a few dark clouds rising in the S.W. which threatened a change of weather. At length after gazing until his eye became weary, he was about to descend, when he observed a small white speck on the water. He watched it for some time attentively, and as it approached, his heart bounded with joy to find that it was his whale-boat. It was still early in the afternoon, when the boat had reached to within three or four miles of the Island, and the clouds which had been seen in the south-western horizon had gathered into one dark mass, and were driving rapidly onward in the form of a heavy squall. Capt. R — watched its progress with intense anxiety, now glancing his eye at its threatening approach, and then at the boat; but still he saw no sign of preparation, either by furling the sail, or at least, by lowering the *sprit*. Perhaps their anxiety to reach the Island made them heedless of their danger; but it was a fatal temerity. The cloud passed, the sun shone out, and the sky became bright again, but the boat was no where to be seen. She had capsized, and every soul on board perished. This was a heavy stroke to R —. In one instant his brother and companions were all hurried to another world, his present prospects blasted, and himself alone on an Island, with but a faint hope of being rescued, before his small remaining stock of provisions should be entirely exhausted.

But his was not the spirit to be subdued by misfortune. His life had been attended with too many adventures and severe trials, to give way to despair: therefore, he prepared a flag, established a signal post, and waited patiently the result of time; but day passed after day, and still no sail appeared within the limits of his view, to break the monotony of the scene, or to cheer his mind.

The contrast of the varied and active scenes of his former life, with that of his present situation, was indeed great; and he began to grow as weary of idleness, as he was of solitude.

He thought of constructing a raft, and by converting the tent into a sail, hoped, by taking advantage of a smooth sea, to reach the coast of Chili in safety; but in the midst of his preparations for the execution of this plan, he was joyfully interrupted by the appearance of a vessel in the offing, whose course seemed to be directly towards the Island. With all sail set to a fine breeze she approached rapidly, and in a short time took in her studding sails, and rounded to, with the fore-top-sail aback, within a mile of the beach. A boat was lowered, which soon after put off, with four oarsmen and one at the helm, and pulled in for the landing near which the tent was pitched. As they came near, Capt. R — made signs to them where to land, to avoid the heaviest of the surf, and then went to the spot to receive and welcome them. The boat, guided by his direction, steered close to the point of rocks, which breaks off the surf, and forms a partial shelter under its lee, and in a few moments reached the shore in safety. The crew jumped out, two on each side, and held the boat upright, while he who had been steering, stepped forward and sprang out on the beach. R — looked at him intently for a moment, and the stranger, after a quick glance of his keen eye, exclaimed with a kind of savage delight, "bien encuentrada mi amigo," and then turning to his men, ordered them to seize Capt. R —, bind him hand and foot, and place him in the boat.

The reader may wonder, who among Capt. R —'s former *friends* he had met with so accidentally, and who seemed to greet him so *cordially*, and his surprise will not be lessened on finding that he was no other than Martinillo the pirate, whom he had left on the beach at the mouth of the Maule, believing him dead; and he certainly had good reason for so believing; for it is difficult to imagine that any human being could suffer all he had undergone, and continue to live. The meeting here was entirely accidental, as the pirate knew nothing of Capt. R —'s being on the Island, and had no other object in view, than to procure a full supply of water, and then continue his cruise. On his return to the vessel, he ordered his prisoner to be put in double irons, and a sentinel posted to keep constant guard over him.

Capt. R — now found himself on board of a sharp built brigantine of about two hundred tons, a perfect model, taunt rigged, and bearing every appearance of being a very fast sailer. Her armament consisted of ten eighteen pound carronades, and two long eighteens—bow-chasers, which worked on long slides extending aft as far as the foremast, where the guns were kept secured when not required for action. Her crew was composed of a medley of all nations, about 110 in number, and her commander, the celebrated Martinillo, with whom the reader is already acquainted. After completing his supply of water, he

made all sail upon his brigantine, and steered to the northward during the night. In the morning after breakfast, he ordered his prisoner to be brought on deck, and without further ceremony, had him placed in one of the stern ports, his arms lashed to the ring bolts on each side of it, and a file of marines, with loaded muskets, drawn up in front of him. The pirate then advanced towards the port, and with a fiend-like expression of countenance, at the same time removing with his hand his dark matted hair from his scarred forehead, said to R—, "look at the work of one of your villains, and by your order. I now intend to serve you as you did my unfortunate companions, whom you captured at Maule"—then calling to his marines with an infuriate voice, "make ready—take aim"—he paused a moment, as if to enjoy the dreadful suspense of his victim, but seemed vexed to find, that so far from blenching in the least, he remained firm and composed, with his eye resolutely bent on the muskets, which in the next moment might deal instant death. The pirate hesitated—then ordered the marines to put up their arms. Again turning to R— he said, "I allow you twenty-four hours longer to live, but to-morrow, at this hour, you die." The sergeant was ordered to replace the prisoner's irons, and he was again consigned to the charge of a sentinel. The same scene was repeated several mornings in succession, but still Martinillo was unwilling to swallow hastily so sweet a morsel of revenge, and by this daily procrastination, seemed determined to practice the very refinement of cruelty, before finally wreaking his unhallowed vengeance.

Many, under these trying and hopeless circumstances, would have courted death as a relief from suffering; but such was the firm and unconquerable spirit of R—, that although death presented no terrors to his mind, he did not shrink from life, because it had become a burthen. On the morning of the fifth day, just as the prisoner was to be brought on deck again, a distant sail was discovered from the mast head, which caused a simultaneous shout of joy fore and aft; for by them, every vessel was deemed as lawful prize, which might not prove to be of superior force. For the present, all thoughts of the execution were absorbed in the interest of the chase—every yard of canvass was immediately spread upon the brigantine, and her course changed, so as to head directly for the strange sail. A ray of hope now shot across the mind of R—. The vessel in sight might be a Chilian cruiser, or perhaps one of the British or American squadrons; but this cheering thought was again clouded by the reflection, that for one man-of-war, there were at least one hundred merchant vessels on the coast, and therefore how much greater the probability that the unsuspecting stranger would fall a prey to the pirate.

The two vessels approached each other, and Martinillo, by

means of his spy-glass, soon ascertained that the stranger was a schooner, on the larboard tack, standing to the S.W. close on a wind. The pirate continued his course to the N.E. directly for her, and it was not long before they were near enough to each other, for the mutual discovery that both were armed. The schooner displayed the Chilian Government flag and pennant, brailed up her foresail, hauled down the flying-jib, and backed her fore-topsail.

The pirate hoisted the Spanish royal ensign, shortened sail, and kept his luff a little so as to preserve the weather-gage.—His decks were now cleared for action, and as soon as he gained the weather beam of the schooner, he bore up, intending to fire his two bow-chasers, and then luff to, and continue the action with his broadside guns; but just as the brigantine had got head-on, the schooner fired a raking shot from a long pivot gun, which struck the fore-yard, and carried it away in the slings. This threw the pirate's vessel into some confusion, but he quickly returned the fire with his bow-chasers, and then luffing to, continued the action with great spirit and effect. The schooner kept up a constant fire on her assailant, which did considerable damage; but the commander, finding his force far inferior to that of the pirate, and his vessel suffering severely, thought it full time to make sail, and effect his escape; which, from the crippled state of the brigantine, was no difficult matter to accomplish. Martinillo was sorely vexed at seeing his expected prize thus easily elude his grasp; but he at once commenced repairing the damages, and putting his vessel in a state to continue her cruise. On looking among the killed and wounded, however, he found he had met with one loss greater than all the others. His first lieutenant, the only navigator on board, had received a mortal wound, and was at that moment expiring in the arms of one of the sailors. This was a source of more regret than any thing that had befallen him; but an expedient occurring to his mind, he resolved to try it at once. He ordered his prisoner to be brought on deck, and after explaining to him the situation in which his vessel was left by the death of his first lieutenant, concluded by saying briefly, "I have now trifled with you long enough—your services are important to me as navigator to my vessel, and I offer you the vacancy which has occurred by my lieutenant's death. If you accept, you shall enjoy all the privileges arising from the station. If you decline, say your prayers at once, or the musket balls of my marines may interrupt you in them." Capt. R— very coolly replied, that he had no objection to accept his offer on condition that he should not be obliged to take an active part in his operations.

To this the pirate readily assented, and ordering the prisoner to be released from his irons, proclaimed him to the crew as

his first lieutenant. R — immediately commenced upon his new duties, and by his superior seamanship, and correctness in all his nautical calculations, he soon gained the confidence of Martinillo, who consulted him on all subjects relating to the vessel. At times, he was even disposed to be facetious, and apparently friendly; and one day that he was in a better humour than usual, he related to R — the history of his adventures from the time he was left, supposed dead, on the beach at Maule, to their unexpected meeting at Mocha. "After your return to the ship," said he, "I managed with great pain and difficulty, to crawl to a hut close by the beach, the habitation of a fisherman. I there found an old woman, who seemed almost terrified to death at my bloody and mangled appearance;" here a slight shade darkened his rough features for a moment, but it passed, and he resumed his narrative: "but as soon as I made her acquainted with my distress, compassion succeeded to fear, and she immediately set about dressing my wounds, and preparing every comfort for me which her cabin afforded. The balls which passed through my body, proved not to have made dangerous wounds; and the butt of your sergeant's musket, no thanks to his good intentions, did not fracture my skull; therefore, with the aid of an excellent constitution, and my kind old friend's unwearied attention, at the end of a month I was able to walk about without inconvenience; and in a few days more, set off on foot for Valparaiso, where I arrived as a *shipwrecked sailor*, without exciting any suspicion of my real character. I was not long in Valparaiso before I took a fancy to this vessel, and shipped on board of her as a seaman. We soon after sailed for Guayaquil; where, after a very short passage, we delivered our cargo. We were detained some time before we could get a return cargo; and several of the crew having deserted, the captain appointed me boatswain, and directed me to procure some good seamen in their places. This I did, taking good care to have an understanding with them first. At length we received a freight, and sailed again for Valparaiso; but the moment we were far enough from the land to escape observation, myself and comrades rose upon the officers, put them into one of the boats, turned them adrift, and wished them a pleasant voyage. This being done, we made all sail, and proceeded directly to the island of Chiloé, where I obtained authority from Governor Quintanilla, to arm the brigantine, and cruise as a Spanish privateer.

The delay, however, of fitting the armament, and of procuring the necessary number of men for a full crew, was very tedious; but being at length prepared, in compliment to the Governor, I called the brigantine by his name, fired a salute, and sailed on my cruise; and on my way along the coast, touched at the island of Mocha, to pick up a *spare first lieutenant*."

Here his naturally fierce and repulsive expression gave way to a momentary smile, as he tapped his lieutenant familiarly on the shoulder; but R — could never so far overcome his repugnance to the wretch, as to encourage the least familiarity; and, having heard his story to the end, soon found some good excuse, in the duties of the vessel, to withdraw from his *facetious* companion.

To follow the pirate through the various incidents of his lawless career, would far exceed the limits of this narrative; nor was it my original intention to become his historian, further than the events of his life were connected with those of Capt. R —. He continued his cruise along the coasts of Chili and Peru, making several valuable prizes; and on his arrival at Quilca, took possession of an American brig, called the Frederick.

As Quilca is the nearest landing to the city of Arequippa, and the point where all trading vessels land their cargoes for Upper Peru, he determined to cruise off the port. He knew that the authorities at Quilca had not the power to interrupt him, even if they had the inclination; but after a few valuable presents to the Governor, and an invitation to visit the brigantine, which was accepted, there appeared to exist a perfect understanding between them, "par nobile fratrum."

A few days after the capture of the Frederick, the English brig Swallow stood into the roadstead; and not suspecting the character of the brigantine, fell an easy prey to her. Martinillo sent his first lieutenant on board the prize, to take temporary charge, and conduct her to a safe anchorage. While standing in for this purpose, the pirate's attention was arrested by another sail which had just appeared off Point Ornillos. He hove to, and awaited her approach; but it was not long before he discovered the new comer to be a ship of the line; and taking advantage of a breeze just springing up from the northward, which brought him directly to windward, he made all sail, and stood off shore, leaving, with much reluctance, his first lieutenant behind.

The parting regrets, however, were very far from being mutual; and R —, overjoyed at the prospect of once more gaining his liberty, ran the Swallow into the cove of Quilca, in order to deceive the prize crew into the belief that he was trying to avoid being recaptured. On letting go the anchor, in the narrowest part of the cove, he purposely left the cable unbitted, and before the whole range had run out, the brig drifted on the rocks, and stove in her quarter. Night was just closing in, and R — availing himself of the confusion caused by the *accident*, stole quietly into the small boat, and sculled on shore, leaving the crew to the exercise of their own ingenuity in getting the brig off. In the morning, as soon as it was light, he clamber-

ed to the top of the high bluff of Quilca, which overlooks the roadstead, in hopes to find that the strange ship of war had reached the anchorage; but not a vessel was any where to be seen. This was a sad disappointment, and happy as he had just deemed himself at having escaped one danger, he now saw others threatening him on all sides. If he returned to the brig, he was in danger of being held a prisoner by his own prize crew, with the probability of being again delivered up to the pirate; and if it became known to the authorities on shore that he was an officer in the Chilian service, he would at once be seized as a prisoner of war, and perhaps spend his captivity in one of the mines of Peru; he therefore determined to remain concealed for the present, and trust to the same fickle goddess who had already played such a capricious game with him.

In this instance, however, she proved friendly. The ship, after an unsuccessful chase after the pirate, returned the next day, and sent her boat on shore R—, with a light heart, immediately repaired to the landing, and placing himself under the protection of the officer of the boat, was taken off, and kindly received on board, by the Commodore and officers of the U. S. ship Franklin.

A SHORT HISTORY OF THE CONTINENTAL FRIGATE ALLIANCE.

The following sketch has been communicated by an officer of the Navy who was personally intimate with Commodore Barry, and who has had other opportunities to become acquainted with the facts narrated.

The Continental frigate *Alliance* was built at Salisbury, on the river Merrimack, in Massachusetts.

The alliance with France, in 1778, induced our government to give the frigate the name she bore.

When the Trumbull frigate was captured, in 1781, the Alliance and Dean frigates composed our whole naval force of that class of ships.

The Alliance was commanded by many of the most distinguished officers of the Continental Navy—Barry, Jones, Nicholson and others; Commodore Dale served in her, as first lieutenant under Jones.

The history of this ship furnishes many pleasant anecdotes illustrative of great gallantry, and good humour; many of them occurring at periods of time when it would be supposed that the minds of responsible characters were naturally otherwise engaged.

The frigate Alliance, while convoying the sloop of war—— commanded by Captain Green, from Havana, having on board the money that founded the Bank of North America, was chased by a seventy four, and a large class sloop of war; the seventy four and our sloop sailed nearly the same; but the English sloop outsailed ours, and no doubt, would have come up with her, and in all probability, have so injured her masts and sails, as to allow the seventy four to come up, when she would, of course, have been taken: on each of those attempts to close with our sloop, Commodore Barry, who took his station on the weather quarter of our sloop, bore down on the English sloop and engaged her. The Alliance being of superior force, the English sloop was compelled to sheer off, and thus the money was preserved, which contributed much to the happy termination of our war with England.

In one of the encounters of the Alliance frigate and British sloop, a shot entered the corner of the Alliance's counter, and made its way into a locker, where all the china belonging to the Captain, was kept; an African servant of the Commodore's, a great favourite, ran up to the quarter deck and called out "Massa, dat dam Ingresse-man broke all e chana!" "You rascal," said the Commodore, "why did you not stop the ball?" Sha, massa; cannon ball muss hab a room."

At the close of the war the Alliance was sold by the government, and purchased by Robert Morris; and Captain Green, with Commodore Dale in the capacity of chief mate, made the first voyage from Philadelphia to China, that ever was attempted out of that port; and little did they suppose, at the time they started, that a small craft from Salem, was on her way before them; but such was the fact;—for, on their arrival in the Indian ocean, they fell in with a small Yankee schooner, and on hailing her, were answered "from Salem." Captain Green enquired what charts they had; the answer was "none, for there were none to be had, but we have Gutherie's grammar." This passage was performed out of season, and it is believed to have been the first ever made outside of New Holland, by an American.

Commodore Barry, while commanding the Alliance, was chased by the Chatham, sixty four, off from the entrance of the Delaware Bay; and it has been said, that, on that occasion, the ship sailed fifteen knots, and run down the Speedwell, British sloop of war, the Commander of which attempted to prevent the escape of the Alliance.

The Alliance, after all her wonderful escapes from the enemy, and long and perilous voyages, died a natural death in the port of Philadelphia, and laid her bones on Pellet's Island, opposite that city.

In the year 1802, an officer attached to Commodore Dale's

squadron, met with Captain Vashon, of the British Navy, at Gibraltar, who then commanded the Dreadnaught, ninety eight; and was informed by him, that he commanded the English sloop of war, before spoken of.—Captain Vashon made the most respectful enquiries after Commodore Barry, and stated the facts, as they had been frequently related before, by the Commodore himself; and in the most magnanimous terms accorded to that gallant officer, a full and generous portion of his approbation, for the masterly manœuvring of the Alliance, on that occasion. Captain Vashon stood high in the British Navy, as a distinguished seaman, and observed, that the Commander of the seventy four, who was then an Admiral, spoke often to him, on the subject of their pursuit of the frigate Alliance; always giving her Commander great credit for his conduct. Commodore Barry, on this, as on all other occasions, evinced his love of justice, and spoke of Captain Vashon's conduct, bravery and ability, in terms of the highest commendation.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

Commodore W. BAINBRIDGE has been relieved from the command of the Navy Yard, at Charlestown, Mass. The friends of this gallant officer will be grieved to learn that this release from the duties of an arduous station is at his own request, made in consequence of the feeble state of his health. He arrived in Philadelphia on the 16th April, accompanied by medical friends. His complaint is said to be dropsy.

Commodore JESSE D. ELLIOTT has been appointed to succeed Com. Bainbridge.

The U. S. ship *Fairfield*, Master Commandant C. S. McCauley, now at Norfolk, is under sailing orders to proceed to New York, and from thence shortly for her destination in the Pacific squadron, to relieve the Falmouth.

The following is a list of her officers:—

CHARLES S. MCCAULEY, *Commander.*

James P. Wilson, 1st *Lieutenant.*
John A. Carr, 2d do
Samuel Lockwood, 3d do
N. C. Lawrence, 4th do
Wm. F. Patten, *Surgeon.*
M. G. DeLaney, *Assist. do.*
John A. Bates, *Purser.*
Frederick Chatard, *Acting Master.*
Edward L. Handy, } *Passed*
Wm. C. Chaplin, } *Midshipmen.*
Lewis Parker, *Gunner.*
Wm. Hatch, *Carpenter.*
John V. Hall, *Sail Maker.*

Midshipmen.
J. P. B. Adams,
A. R. Rose,
Charles Burdett,
W. Gwathmey,
Wm. P. McArthur,
James D. Morrison,
Henry Waddell,
V. L. Williamson,
Wm. P. Gamble,
Wm. H. Wallace,
Geo. W. Dotey,
Daniel D. Henrie.

Passengers in the Fairfield to join the schooner Dolphin;
R. Voorhees, *Lieut. Com'g.*
Henry Eagle, *Lieutenant.*
John W. Turk, *do*
H. S. Rennolds, *Assist. Surgeon.*
Joseph Lanman, *Acting Master.*
Joseph Sperry, *Midshipman.*

The U. S. ship *Natchez*, Master Commandant J. P. Zantzinger, will sail early in the present month from Norfolk for the Brazil station.

The following is a list of her officers:—

JOHN P. ZANTZINGER, *Commander.*

David G. Farragut,	1st *Lieutenant.*	*Midshipmen.*
Wm. W. M'Kean,	2d do	John Banister,
Alex. B. Pinkham,	3d do	William S. Drayton,
John Manning,	th4 do	Edmund Jenkins,
Samuel Moseley, *Surgeon.*		Wm. D. Hurst,
Geo. B. M'Knight, *Assist. Surgeon.*		William T. Smith,
Samuel P. Todd, *Purser.*		Francis E. Baker,
Charles H. Duryee, *Acting Master.*		Addison R. Talliaferro,
W. C. Cutts, }	*Passed*	Wm. R. Gardner,
A. C. Maury, }	*Midshipmen.*	Thos. O. Glasscock,
Joshua W. Fry, *Captain's Clerk.*		John W. Bryce,
James Banks, *Boatswain.*		Levin Handy,
Francis Russ, *Carpenter.*		Richard Forrest,
Daniel Kelly, *Gunner.*		Thomas T. Hunter.
Thomas Dawes, *Purser's Steward.*		

Passenger in the Natchez—Purser W. P. Zantzinger, to join the schr. Enterprize.

The U. S. ship *Vincennes* is preparing for sea at Portsmouth, N. H. and will be ready in all the present month; her destination is the Pacific.

The following officers have been ordered to join her.

WM. D. SALTER, *Commander.*

Charles H. Bell,	1st *Lieutenant.*	*Midshipmen.*
Chas. H. Jackson,	2d do	John J. Almy,
Theodorus Bailey,	3d do	John G. Anthony,
James T. Homans,	4th do	John B. Dale,
Edm'd. M. Russell,	5th do	Geo. W. Harrison,
A. B. Cooke, *Fleet Surgeon.*		Stephen Decatur,
J. F. Sickels, *Assist. Surgeon.*		Wm. A. Jones,
E. N. Cox, *Purser.*		John H. Sherburne,
John S. Missroon, *Acting Master.*		O. H. Perry,
Robert Handy, }	*Passed*	A. G. Clary,
Sam'l. Swartwout, }	*Midshipmen.*	Washington Bartlett,
John Morris, *Boatswain.*		Wm. A. Parker,
Charles Cobb, *Gunner.*		Strong B. Thompson,
John Green, *Carpenter.*		Hunn Gansevoort,
Henry Bacon, *Sail Maker.*		L. B. Avery.

Schooner *Grampus*, sailed from Charleston, S. C. for the West Indies, on the 6th April. The following is a list of her officers:—

JOSEPH SMOOT, *Commander.*

Arthur Lewis, *Lieutenant.*	*Midshipmen.*
E. T. Doughty, *Acting Master.*	H. S. Stellwagen,
William M. Wood, *Acting Surgeon.*	Charles Steedman,
J. M. Gardner, } *Passed*	Roger Perry,
A. H. Kilty, } *Midshipmen.*	George W. Chapman,
John Oliver, *Gunner.*	Wm. L. Parkinson.
John D. Benthall, *Boatswain.*	Wm. McKenny, *Captain's Clerk.*
John Duffell, *Carpenter.*	
N. D. Seaver, *Sail Maker.*	

Passenger—Lieut. L. B. Newell, to re-join the U. S. ship St. Louis.

The U. S. ship of the Line *Delaware* will be taken into the Dry Dock at Norfolk, as soon as it is ready for her reception, preparatory to her sailing for the Mediterranean.

MEDITERRANEAN.—Frigates *United States*, *Brandywine*, and *Constellation*, and sloop *John Adams*, were at Port Mahon on the 6th January. The *U. States*, after leaving Naples on the 17th October, visited Messina, Syracuse, Malta, Tripoli, and Tunis.

WEST INDIES.—Sloop *Vandalia*, Capt. Budd, bearing the broad pennant of Com. J. D. HENLEY, arrived at Pensacola on the 13th March, and was there on the 5th April.

Sloop *St. Louis*, Captain Newton, arrived at Port au Prince, 8th March, sailed on the 13th, arrived at St. Jago 20th March, and at Pensacola 2d April—all well.

Schooner *Shark*, Lieut. Com'g. Boerum, from St. Thomas, was at St. Croix, 3d March; touched at St. Pierre's (Mart.) 26th March, and on the 5th April daily expected at Pensacola.

Schooner *Porpoise*, Lieut. Com'g. McIntosh, arrived at Pensacola 13th March, and was there on the 5th April.

BRAZIL.—Sloop *Warren*, Captain Cooper, at Rio Janeiro 19th February —All well.

Sloop *Peacock*, Capt. Geissinger, was at Canton 1st Dec. 1832.—All well; was at Lintin (China) on the 20th December—to sail next day for Turon Bay, (Cochin China) and thence to Siam.

Schooner *Boxer*, Lieut. Com'g. Shields, bound to the East Indies, was spoken 5th December 1832, by a whale ship, arrived at New Bedford, in lat. 37° 54′ S. lon. 2° 25′ E. All well.—Expected to arrive at Bencoolen in about 60 days.

PACIFIC.—Frigate *Potomac*, Com. Downes, arrived at Callao on the 15th Dec. in 13 days from Valparaiso, and was still at the former port on the 6th January.

Sloop *Falmouth*, Captain Gregory, arrived at Callao on the 1st Dec. and at Puna (Guayaquil) on the 16th Jan. to sail immediately for Valparaiso.

Schooner *Dolphin*, Lieut. Com'g. Long, was at Calloa on the 22d Dec. —at Guayaquil on the 10th January, and at Panama on the 5th February; sailed on the 16th Feb. for Lima and Valparaiso.

PROMOTIONS.

The following promotions in the Navy have been made since the publication of the Register.

Master Commandant Lawrence Kearny, to be a Captain, to take rank from 20th December, 1832.

Isaac Mayo,	} Lieuts. to be Masters Commandant			20 Dec. 1832.
Wm. K. Latimer,	} do	do	do	2 March, 1833.
Peter Turner,	} Passed Midshipmen to be Lieutenants, to take			
John T. Jenkins,	} do	do	rank from	20 Dec. 1832.
John A. Davis,	do	do		27 Feb. 1833.
Henry K. Thatcher,	do	do		28 " "

At a Board of Surgeons of the Navy, convened in Washington, 28 Jan. 1833, of which Dr. L. Osborne was President, Assistant Surgeons Samuel W. Ruff and Geo. W. Palmer were examined and found qualified for promotion.

Six gentlemen were passed as qualified for the appointment of Assistant Surgeon, five of whom have since been commissioned, viz:—J. Frederick Sickels, Napoleon C. Barrabino, M. G. DeLaney, W. F. McClenahan, H. S. Rennolds.

RESIGNATIONS.

Chaplain—Hervey H. Hays. *Midshipmen*—David B. Morgan, David M. Stokes, Cranstoun Laurie, John L. Spencer.

DISMISSAL.

Lieutenant Robert B. Randolph, of the Navy, 19th April.

ORDER, No. 32.

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, 18th April, 1833.

The Secretary of War has given the following names to the Forts to be constructed and situated on the points and places here below mentioned:

To the work on Grand Terre, Louisiana,	*Fort Livingston.*
To the work on Mobile Point, Alabama,	*Fort Morgan.*
To the work on St. Rosa Island, Florida,	*Fort Pickens.*
To the work on Cockspur Island, Georgia,	*Fort Pulaski.*
To the new work now constructing in the Harbour of Charleston, South Carolina,	*Fort Sumter.*
To the work on Oak Island, North Carolina,	*Fort Caswell.*
To the work on the Peapatch, Delaware River,	*Fort Delaware.*
To the work on Throg's Neck, New York,	*Fort Schuyler.*
To the work on St. George's Island, Boston Harbour,	*Fort Warren.*

BY ORDER OF MAJOR GENERAL MACOMB,

R. JONES,
Adjutant General.

NOTICES.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.—The Military and Naval Magazine has now reached its third number, and the publishers feel grateful for the warm interest manifested by various individuals for the success of the work. Additional names are coming in slowly; but enough have not yet been obtained to ensure the permanency of the publication. Twice the number of names now on the list would about defray the expenses, and still leave the publishers without profit for their labor and capital. An appeal is therefore made to every subscriber, to use his exertions to obtain at least one additional subscriber, if he cannot do more. By this means, the continuance of the work would not only be secured, but the publishers would feel encouraged to prosecute their labors with spirit, satisfied that they should lose nothing by the undertaking.

It may be, and doubtless has been, said by some, that they will patronize the Magazine, if they find it hereafter worthy of patronage. But with deference be it observed, this is not the proper course to pursue, nor the true spirit with which to regard the work. Let all such as are inclined to patronize the Magazine, contribute their $5 for the first year, and, if they will, let them consider the money as thrown away—that the work is good for nothing—yet, satisfied that something of the kind is wanted, for the sake of making the experiment, they will consent to lose $5. If, at the close of the year, they find their hopes and expectations disappointed, the publishers ask no further aid, and will be content that the work shall stand or fall by its own merits.

Undertaken almost exclusively for the benefit of the officers of the Army and Navy, and intended to supply a desideratum often felt and long wanted, their proverbial liberality, it is hoped, will not suffer the Magazine to languish, for want of the desired patronage.

None but such as have been abroad, can realize the feeling with which information from their far-distant and dearly-loved home is welcomed. How many officers of the Army are there, who are stationed in some remote corner, beyond the endearments of kindred and domestic ties; and what officer of the Navy is there, who is not liable, at a moment's warning, to be ordered away on a three years' cruise? To every one so situated, a publication like the Military and Naval Magazine, must possess a charm, and a value, which will render its appearance thrice welcome.

To every officer of the Army and Navy, then, the appeal is made; and may it not be made in vain.

☞ Some few subscribers have paid their subscription money in advance, to an Agent, under the expectation that their numbers would be forwarded by mail free of postage. A reference to the prospectus, however, will shew, that to entitle subscribers to this privilege, the money must be remitted *to the publishers*, and should likewise be free of postage. The profits of the Magazine would, in no case, justify the payment of postage, and the allowance of a commission to Agents. One is considered about equivalent to the other; but both would cause too great a drawback upon the receipts.

To CORRESPONDENTS.—It is perhaps unnecessary to state, that the Publishers look principally to the officers of the Army and Navy, for contributions for the original department of the Magazine. That there is abundant talent and materials in the two services to sustain, with credit, a work of this description, is generally and freely admitted. To draw those materials from their otherwise unavailable obscurity, is one of the objects of the Magazine; and to hand down to posterity, in a shape fit for preservation, or for the use of the future historian, deeds of noble daring, instances of devoted patriotism, new inventions and discoveries, narratives of adventures on sea and land;—to note the improvements of the age, and to give a succinct view of the movements of the Army and Navy, will form the leading features in the character of the work.

The habit of forwarding communications anonymously, is attended with objections, not the least of which is the danger of perverting the writer's meaning, especially if his manuscript be not very legible. The confidence which should ever subsist between a writer and his publisher, ought to be a sufficient safeguard to the former to disclose his name privately; and should that confidence ever be betrayed, the publisher forfeits all claim to further favors. If it be urged, that the Editor of the Magazine is not known, as his name has not been formally announced, and that therefore persons who would be disposed to write, are unwilling that their productions should be submitted to the scrutiny of strange hands, it may be said in reply, that the Publishers hold themselves accountable for the impartial and honorable disposal of all articles offered for publication; it is their wish to inspire such

a degree of confidence in contributors, as that they will not hesitate to communicate their names privately, to be held sacred when required.

Whenever a sufficient quantity of copy shall have been prepared in advance, the original matter will be inserted first in order, but having at present to depend mostly on selections, it would cause too much delay to wait in expectance of communications. The work must go on, and selected pieces be put in hand, if original ones are not ready. Articles intended for a forthcoming number, should be received by the 10th of the month, or sooner, if possible.

Whatever facilities the Public Departments can afford, have been kindly promised; and much valuable information may, and will, be obtained and published, as time to select and arrange the materials can be found; besides this, whatever relates to the current events of the day, will be communicated in an authentic form.

Information, touching the construction of forts, barracks, arsenals, navy yards, the building and repairing of vessels, warehouses, docks, &c. and a thousand other minutiæ, would be acceptable.

☞ Two communications have been received, one signed "A Subscriber," the other "W," both relative to the organization of the Ordnance Corps and the Regiment of Dragoons; their insertion is declined on the ground that the language is not considered respectful towards the constituted authorities of the country. We by no means intend to close our pages against complaints, or the reformation of abuses, where they exist: but our advice to all is—*be temperate.*

To AGENTS.—Agents are requested to transmit to the Publishers the names of all the subscribers they may have obtained; designating those who wish to receive their numbers by mail, and those who prefer receiving them from an Agent.

Agents will also confer a favor by informing the Publishers whether any copies have been returned to them by gentlemen, to whom the first number was sent as a specimen; and, if so, by whom.

From the notices which have been taken of the MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE, the following, from the "*Western Monthly Magazine,*" is selected, because it contains judicious advice, which may be adopted with benefit both by the Publishers and their patrons.

MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE OF THE UNITED STATES.—Volume I. No. 1. March, 1833. Washington: *Thompson & Homans.*—This is the title of a new Monthly, just established at Washington City. The increase of this species of periodicals, has lately been rapid, and we have seen none excelling this in *plan.* That such a work can be well supported, we have no doubt: but in order to insure patronage, it should be exclusively, as the title imports, a magazine of the United States. Such is *not* the character of the publication before us, though fair promises are made that such it shall be. When we call to mind the inexhaustible resources for such a work in the past history of our country, and in the present movements of

her army and navy, we are convinced that abundant materials exist without drawing upon foreign works. This number borrows largely in this way, which we regret to see. There are now living, many of the officers and soldiers who served in the late war, who could relate their experience; thus affording a mass for the future historian, which, in the want of some depository, would go down with them to the grave. So with the naval officers and sailors, who served in the same war. Our troops are stationed on the frontiers of the country, in parts yet comparatively little known, and are in constant association with a race, of whose peculiar character, institutions, legends, and habits, much may yet be made public, and may be handed down to remote ages, when that race shall have become extinct.—Surely such opportunities should not be neglected. Our men of war, too, float on every sea. Among these officers are many men of talents and learning, from whom could be obtained, contributions eminently interesting. How much of the characteristics of the inhabitants of the Mediterranean shores yet remains to be brought to light; and how little do we really know of the state of society in South America; to say nothing of our almost total ignorance of the tribes who inhabit the islands of the Pacific. Such, connected with the lighter kinds of description of scenes in the services, and statistical intelligence, we think, are the legitimate objects of a 'Military and Naval Magazine of the United States,' and we hope they will be embraced by this publication.

The writer of this notice has conceived the true scope and design of such a work as the Military and Naval Magazine; and, such as, in the course of time, the Publishers flatter themselves they will be enabled to make it, with the favor and aid of the officers in the two services. But, as yet, these officers are not prepared to offer their contributions of material; the undertaking is a new and untried one, and its commencement was attended with very many disadvantages, some of which are enumerated in the preface to the first number.

But, even supposing that sufficient *original* matter could be obtained, to fill the pages of the Magazine, it may well be questioned whether it would be advisable to discard every thing of foreign fabric. There are many excellent articles which may be selected from the European, and particularly the English periodicals; and until time be afforded to procure those of domestic origin, we must depend in a great measure on our transatlantic brethren. Were we to fail to benefit by the experience of other nations, in affairs of government, or refuse to adopt their improvements in agriculture, commerce, manufactures, or the fine arts, we should lose many of the blessings and comforts which we now enjoy.

GENERAL INTELLIGENCE.

METALLIC SHEATHING.—Baron Wetterstedt, the Swedish chemist, has lately introduced an alloy of lead, antimony, and quicksilver, as a substitute for copper sheathings to vessels. The combination of these three metals prevents the alloy from oxidizing, at the same time that it secures that cohesion, tenacity, and elasticity to the composition, which the copper itself possesses but to a very limited extent. This new sheathing is said also to resist effectually the corrosive qualities of sea-water, to retain at all times a clear and polished surface, and to be obnoxious to every animal or vegetable substance. The price at which Wetterstedt supplies his article is very reasonable, and we have been assured that it is extremely durable, and acquires increased powers of resistance the longer it remains in contact with sea-water.

DEATH—In 1832, made great havoc in the French navy. Sixty-five officers died in the course of the year. Among them were three Vice Admirals, two Rear Admirals, twelve Captains of men-of-war, and nine Captains of frigates, either in active service, or on the retired list. The Vice Admirals who died were Messrs. Leissegues, Bonvet, and Rosily-Mesros; the Rear Admirals, Messrs. Girardias and Burgues du Missiessy.

BRITISH NAVY.—The number of vessels composing the British Navy amounts to 574. Fourteen carry 120 guns, five 110, three 108, twelve 84, nine 78, six 76, sixty-two 74, seven 52, fifteen 50, sixty-two 46, and twenty 42. The remainder carry from 36 to 2 guns each. In this number are included twenty government steam vessels. This immense fleet employs 20,000 sailors & 12,000 royal marines.

NAVAL SINECURE OFFICES.–The following is the return made to the House of Commons on this subject: Sir E. Thornborough, Vice Admiral of England, has £469 5s. 8d. per annum, (49½ yrs. in active service;) Sir G. Martin, Rear Admiral of England, £370 4s. 3d. (33 years;) Lord de Saumarez, General of Marines, £1,728 15s. (47 years;) Sir W. Sidney Smith, Lieut. General of Marines, £1,383 (21 years;) Sir G. Cockburn, Major General of Marines, £1037 5s. (29 years;) four Colonels of Marines—Captain Skipsey, Captain the Hon. F. Irby, Capt. Sir Christopher Cole, and Captain the Hon. Duncan P. Bouverie, with each £690 9s. 2d. per annum. There are no offices executed by deputy in the navy.

MARRIAGES.

At New York, on the 11th April, by the Rev. Mr. Forbes, Lieut. JAMES H. WARD, U. S. Navy, of Hartford, Conn. to Miss SARAH ANNE, daughter of SAMUEL WHITTEMORE, Esq.

At New York, on the 15th April, by the Rev. Dr. Wainwright, Lieut. JOSEPH RITNER, of U. S. Army, to MARY, eldest daughter of Mr. ALEXANDER KYLE, of West Point.

DEATHS.

In Portsmouth, Va. 21st of March, Doct. THOMAS V. WIESENTHAL, late a Surgeon in the U. S. Navy, aged 43 years.

In Washington, on the 1st of April, after an illness of five days, of Scarlet Fever, JULIA ANNA S. aged 3 years, and on the 20th of April, after an illness of twelve days, of same disease, MARY ELIZABETH, daughters of Capt. L. TWIGGS, of the Marine Corps.

At Middletown, Conn. early in April, MARY SELINA, daughter of Lieut. JOSIAH TATNALL, of U. S. Navy, aged 2 years.

In Norfolk, 4th of April, at the Navy Hospital, after a protracted illness of a pulmonary character, Lieut. JOSEPH M. NICHOLSON, of the U. S. Navy, a native of Maryland. Lieut. N. had been many years in the public service, and was favorably known as an officer faithful in the discharge of his duty.

In Boston, LEWIS DEBLOIS, Esq. formerly a Purser in the Navy.

On the 12th of April, on board the U. S. Frigate Java, at Norfolk, Va. Midshipman JOHN MIDDLETON, in the 22d year of his age; a native of Charleston, S. C.

At Charlestown, Mass. 14th of April, Sailing Master JOSEPH WILLISTON aged 52.

At Nashville, Tenn. Mid. WILLIAM PRYOR, murdered.

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LIVE OAK TIMBER FOR THE NAVY.

(Concluded from page 145.)

Our whole purchases of live oak, made to promote the increase and improvement of the navy, and placed in depot, form another topic of inquiry. They have been mostly paid for, except some early specific appropriations from a rateable part of the general appropriations gradually to promote that increase and improvement, and have amounted, in all, to about 909,911 feet. Of this whole amount, much has been already employed in the construction of some of our present vessels afloat, and on the stocks; but the quantity which has not heretofore been burned while in depot, nor used for either repairing or building vessels, nor for any other purposes, and now remains on hand designed for building, and not for repairs, is about 431,845 cubic feet. Of this quantity the annual purchases the last ten years have constituted a large portion of the whole, and have been, on an average, about 33,000 feet per year; or about enough annually for the frame of one ship of the line, or of one frigate and one sloop of war.

Should the policy that has prevailed on this subject during those ten years continue for some time longer, and the present appropriations for gradual improvement be renewed by Congress, the above quantity of 33,000 cubic feet will constitute a third and last item in our permanent annual demands, of live oak timber to be in some way hereafter supplied.

For reasons assigned in the report from this department, made December 3d, 1832, the long continuance of the policy before mentioned as to this kind of timber, as well as other useful materials for ship building, and munitions for naval warfare, seems to me highly judicious. Some additional reasons for it, as regards this kind of timber, can on this occasion be more properly presented.

It is to be recollected, that if, as now estimated, we should, in a spirit of liberal foresight, continue to follow this policy of gradually placing a reasonable supply of live oak timber in depot, before it may be wanted for immediate use, still our provision for all kinds of timber necessary for naval purposes will not be extravagant; but, on the contrary, will probably require much further attention than has hitherto been bestowed on it.

I have before remarked, that the frames of vessels constitute only about one-fourth part of the whole timber used in their construction; and collecting and preserving that one-fourth seasonably, fully, and carefully, as we may, there is, in addition to be provided, either before hand, or from time to time as needed, the large quantity of treble as much other timber, consisting generally of white oak, pine, larch, cedar, locust, and elm; but which, being more perishable and more widely diffused over the country than live oak, and not usually costing more than one-third as much per foot, does not attract so much public consideration.

Our proceedings, in respect to the timber other than live oak, under the act for the gradual improvement of the navy, whether in reserving public lands on which it grows, or in purchasing it for deposite, and all our actual means, and our true policy as to obtaining hereafter the other kinds of naval timber, do not come within the scope of this communication, and, consequently, are not now detailed. But as their quantity must be so large as three-fourths of the whole consumed, this circumstance renders the subject worthy of much attention, and enforces, very strongly, the expediency of securing now in live oak, while the opportunity continues in our power, at least a quarter of our whole future wants.

This is peculiarly incumbent on us, when we are able to secure it in such an invaluable kind of timber as, being placed in a due state of preservation, will probably remain sound for ages.

The difference between the duration of vessels built of timber recently cut, and those of timber in this way well seasoned, is generally computed at about one third in favor of the latter, and, in respect to live oak is greater than one-third; and alone furnishes another strong argument for a continuance, as well as an enlargement of the present policy of procuring, long in advance, and of thoroughly seasoning by immersion in water,

and then by sheltering under sheds, the whole of our live oak timber designed for naval architecture. From all these data, it appears, that all our annual wants, while our present force and present policy remain not essentially changed, will amount to about 62,286 cubic feet of live oak timber. This is 3,400 feet for small ordinary repairs; 25,886 for rebuilding to supply accidental losses and great natural decay; and 33,000 for deposite for gradual improvement.

In order to ascertain how this quantity is hereafter to be obtained, it may be useful first to advert a moment to the whole aggregate amount of our supplies of live oak timber heretofore procured, and the manner and places in which they have been procured. As before stated, we have heretofore purchased in all, about 168,000 feet of live oak, for repairs; about 974,363 cubic feet that has been made up into vessels, and about 431,845 feet now in depot for gradual improvement, exclusive of repairs.

The only deficiency in this amount arises from some small quantity of live oak timber in depot during the late war, having been used in the ordnance service for gun carriages and platforms, and about fifteen thousand feet having been destroyed in the conflagration in this city in 1814. Both of these quantities did not probably exceed 20,000 feet. The whole amount of our supplies then, heretofore obtained in any way, and from any quarter, having been about 1,594,208 cubic feet, these would, on an average, be about 45,549 feet per year, and about one-fourth less than the whole quantity per year estimated as proper and necessary to be hereafter obtained.

These supplies have been procured nearly in the following manner and places: From 1797 to 1800, the demand for live oak for public use was new and considerable, and was chiefly satisfied from the islands and coasts of Georgia and South Carolina. From 1801 to 1816, but little of this kind of timber was obtained in any place for the navy; but all which was obtained, down to the last named year, was cut principally from private lands, except what came from Grover's and Blackbeard's islands, which, having been purchased by the Government, were afterwards allowed to be stripped of their timber, under contracts with individuals. Even down to 1822, most of this kind of timber procured for the navy, though soon after the late war, to a very large amount, was purchased by the contractors, from private lands. The chief exceptions were, as to what grew on the above islands, and some small quantities cut on the public lands in Louisiana.

In 1817, the Government began to adopt means for preserving their live oak in Louisiana; and between that date and 1822, explored and reserved about 19,000 acres of public land,

the growth on which was supposed to remain uncut late as 1827. (Report No. 114, House of Representatives, January 29, 1827.)

Since the purchase of Florida, 1822, the quantities obtained on public as well as private lands, have been great; but, since 1826, as attention to the preservation of timber on the former has increased, most of the live oak used has been cut from the latter. A little reflection on these facts will enable us to calculate, with greater confidence, in respect to the probable and best manner and places of obtaining our future supplies.

Notwithstanding the purchase, by this department, of so large a quantity of live oak since 1797, and especially since 1816, besides all of this kind of timber which has been used in the merchant service during that period, either in this country or shipped abroad, yet one striking, and in some degree controlling circumstance, appears, which may serve to test the accuracy of all opinions on the extent of our present resources in live oak. The prices given by the Government continue about the same as in former years, or, if essentially changed, have become somewhat lower, and would seem clearly to evince the little difficulty which, as yet, has existed, or is likely immediately to exist, in so wide a range as from South Carolina to the Sabine; in finding chiefly, though not entirely on private soil, an adequate supply for our usual wants.

The prices for live oak timber delivered at our yards in A. D. 1799, and of a size suitable for ships of the line, were $1 33 per cubic foot. But some of the contractors at that price failed to fulfil their engagements, and it is reported, though the defective state of our early records does not enable us to ascertain the truth, that those who did fulfil their engagements obtained additional allowances.

In A. D. 1801, the Secretary of the Navy estimated that this timber, when so delivered, would cost $2 per cubic foot, if suitable for ships of the line. Nothing further on this subject can be found, till A. D. 1816, when we paid for live oak timber delivered $1 55 for frames of seventy-fours, $1 42 1-2 for those of frigates, $1 15 for those of sloops, and $1 for promiscuous timber. In A. D. 1826, we paid for the second description of frames $1 20 and 1 25 per foot, and the former price for the last kind of timber. In A. D. 1827, we paid for the first kind $1 37 and 1 50, for the second $1 25 and 1 45, for the third $1 15 and 1 25, and for the last 80 cents, and $1. In 1829, for the second $1 30, and for the last 87 1-2 cents, and offers have been made the present year, and accepted, for the second $1 09, and 1 50, and for the last at 87 1-2 cents and $1.

Originally the prices may have been somewhat enhanced from the circumstances, that the freight of the timber was

somewhat higher than it has been of late years; that, the supply of live oak was then, and probably would continue to be more limited than subsequent explorations and acquisitions of territory have shown it to be, and that the Government then owned no public lands yielding live oak, and enabling it to prevent individuals from exercising an undue control over the market. But it is to be remembered that some of the contractors at the first prices did not feel able, at that rate, to fulfil their engagements; and that between A. D. 1799 and A. D. 1816, all kinds of ship timber on our seaboard have generally been supposed, from the increased settlement of the country, and the augmentation of our commercial tonnage, to to have risen about ten per cent. We may have been in this respect somewhat influenced by the foreign demand, and may on this point derive some instruction from a moment's attention to the fluctuation of the prices of naval timber in England during about the same period. There, in A. D. 1792, a careful examination of her domestic resources resulted in a conviction that a scarcity, especially of large timber, had begun to prevail; and from that year to A. D. 1811, the prices rose, over one hundred per cent. This probably happened, not only from the above scarcity in her home production, but from increasing difficulties in her long wars in obtaining supplies from other countries, and from a larger demand to construct and sustain an enlarged navy. But, in A. D. 1811 and 1812, the prices which from about £3 sterling in 1792, had risen to £11 and 12 sterling per load, or about $128 per cubic feet, began to fall, and in A. D. 1814, it was testified before a committee of parliament, that the extension of canals into the interior to new forests of oak, the improved attention to thinning out the oak, which had ceased to be thrifty in the old forests, hedge rows and parks, and the new plantations which had been made in consequence of such high prices, would probably, without much necessary importation of foreign oak timber, furnish an ample supply of it in future. Accordingly, we find that prices fell nearly one-half between 1811 and 1819, as relates to domestic timber, and about one-third as respects foreign timber.

In this country, it is well known, that, during the last 8 or 10 years, the prices of most articles have nominally fallen; but the particular causes which have effected it, need not here be examined, as they are not believed to have had a very material operation on the cost of live oak timber.

To pursue the general inquiry concerning the probable sources and extent of our future supply, I see no indications of the length of time that we should be able to obtain it from private lands, except what may be derived from the low prices at which it is now procured; the quantity reported by the agents to be still remaining on private lands between the St.

Mary's and the Sabine rivers, and on which some further remarks will hereafter be offered, and the general information as to the whole private supply derived from other quarters.

Having noticed these prices, and the quantity reported by the agents within the above limits, it only remains to be stated under this head, that the general information I have been able to collect about the private supply is, that no great quantities of live oak timber suitable for ship building now remain on private lands in Georgia and South Carolina.

Some trees, too small for cutting thirty years ago, have since reached maturity, and a few are now standing in some of their forests, and especially on some of their islands. In certain places the natural growth on land, cut over from 1795 to 1801, has been permitted to spring up and remain, but generally, the live oak lands in those States, being valuable for cotton and other crops, have been brought into cultivation.

The quantities on private lands in Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, are, without doubt, much greater than in Georgia and South Carolina, and even greater than the results presented in the second tabular statement; because all the districts have not yet been fully explored by our agents, and because their instructions, except in peculiar cases, did not require them to report so far as they have explored, all the live oak trees suitable for ship timber growing on private lands.

Extending southwestward of Louisiana, some recent explorations in Texas favor the opinion that this kind of timber exists there in considerable quantities; but I am not aware that our contractors have yet obtained any from that province, or any other foreign source.

Should the prices of this kind of timber rise much hereafter, some of it might perhaps be purchased there to advantage, though a dependance on any foreign supply, for reasons hereafter given, would be very injudicious. In the event of a great increase of price, individuals within our own boundaries would be tempted to the more careful preservation, if not to the artificial cultivation of it in the most appropriate situations.

But, under existing circumstances, it would be unsafe to rely on individuals either to preserve long what now exists on private lands, or to create a larger supply: because it could not be an object of profit to them, either to save or to cultivate artificially the live oak tree, merely for sale, unless the prices of this kind of timber should become much higher, or the common cultivated products of the soil on which this tree is indigenous, should become much less valuable.

In England, the lands on which oak, to advantage, can be planted or reserved for profit alone, are generally considered such as would not yield in cultivation for grain over 14 shil-

lings, or about $3 36 rent per acre; and the timber must sell standing at the rate of 3 1-5 shillings, or 76 cents per foot.

The bark is valuable here as well as there: but the loppings and trimmings, which are of much importance there, are here entirely worthless. Besides this, most of our live oak lands cost much less than oak lands there, are less burthened with taxes, and, when cleared, have formerly yielded large and profitable crops, though not perhaps equalling the English gross income per acre under the operation of her corn laws. Furthermore, the live oak timber on our lands has often sold standing at only 25 cents per foot; and, from the eagerness to clear and cultivate rich lands in a new country, has sometimes been sold at ten cents per foot. Indeed purchasers, when wanted, are sometimes not found at any price, and the tree is then either girdled and thus destroyed, or cut and consumed in a laudable eagerness to obtain room for cultivated crops. But, should the prices of cultivated crops at the south continue to fall, as during a few years past, and should the prices of this kind of timber rise, then it will be seen, that a point may be reached where the timber crop would be more profitable than the cotton or sugar crop; and not till then will the live oak tree become either well preserved, or well reared on private lands.

As circumstances now are, it is highly probable that most of the live oak at this time growing on private lands, and on such of the public lands as may hereafter be sold and become private, (the timber on them not being so valuable as to justify their reservation,) will, as fast as the country shall become generally settled, be offered in the market to supply the demands of the navy, and of the merchant service.

Though live oak trees are generally either in detached hammocks, or very sparsely scattered at remote distances over the regions suitable to their growth, yet the whole quantity of timber that will, in the above manner, be offered for sale from private lands, must probably be considerable for some years.

Without taking the islands and coasts of South Carolina, Georgia, and Texas into the following computation, there is a tract, from the St. Mary's to the Sabine, of over 1300 miles in length, and about 20 in width, on which, in many places, the live oak is known to grow spontaneously. Of more than 17 millions of acres within that tract, individuals are now supposed to own nearly one million. In ten or fifteen years, as the disputed titles become settled, and the public lands not reserved are put into the market, individuals will probably own six or eight millions of acres. Whatever of these trees may be found on many of the forest parts of these six or eight millions of acres, though generally much scattered, and often so remote from water transportation as to be of little value, and

what few may be obtained from other places before enumerated, must furnish all the estimated supply from private lands. Most of this timber, within our own limits, may be deemed secure for the public service if we choose to purchase it, as its high price in the first instance, compared with that of other timber, being about treble in amount, and the prejudices or supposed interests existing against its use among the mechanics engaged in shipbuilding, have generally prevented its very extensive employment in the construction of other than public vessels. But some of this timber growing on private lands, will doubtless continue to be worked up in the merchant service; and, as the owners of vessels look to their remote interests, its use in this way will increase. In general, however, it will not be of the most valuable and scarce dimensions; because whatever may become the extent of its use here in private vessels, the more abundant the small and cheaper pieces, not suitable for the larger rates of public vessels, will usually, though not invariably, be employed for private ones.

It would give me much satisfaction to form an estimate on which perfect reliance could be placed, as to the precise number of years this supply, which we may obtain from private lands, would probably meet our naval wants; but I have not sufficient data for that purpose. A similar, though not so great difficulty exists in ascertaining how long the timber growing on public lands, will, without artificial cultivation, suffice to supply our annual demands, when it shall become necessary or expedient to resort to that source.

But such further information as I have been able to procure, bearing on both these points, it is deemed proper to present, in order that Congress may have embodied in one document all the data which the department possesses, and which appears entitled to some consideration before forming any thing like a decisive opinion on those interesting points.

A table was prepared in A. D. 1830, of all the live oak timber which, before A. D. 1819, in a small part of Louisiana, and before A. D. 1827, in South Carolina, Georgia, and part of East Florida, had been examined and reported by former agents, as growing on either public or private lands.

The quantity in that small part of Louisiana was computed at 350,000 feet.

The quantity in the other places, above named was computed at 734,200 feet; making an aggregate of 1,084,200 cubic feet. But, in December, 1830, the navy board supposed some of the former, and large portions of the latter, had been removed. Much of the latter was also supposed to be old and decayed. It will be seen, likewise, that most of the latter was growing on private lands. [Doc. 178, of House of Reps. pages 25th and 26th.] In February, A. D. 1831, a further ta-

ble was prepared from the reports of agents from actual examinations in West Florida, giving a result, so far as then examined and reported, of 1,130,655 cubic feet more.

The Secretary of the Navy at that time supposed there existed on both public and private lands which had then been examined, about 2,214,855 cubic feet. [Rep. No. 102, p. 68.] But the imperfection of all the examinations which had been made in East Florida, and the absence of any examinations in the greater part of West Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and most of Louisiana, and the ignorance of what portions grew on public and what on private lands, and what had been cut and removed from either since former examinations in 1819 and 1827, led to a new system of districts and agents, whose chief duties were to make a further and full examination and report of the whole live oak timber which might be found still to remain on lands belonging to the public, and of the most valuable lots of this kind of timber noticed on private lands. The result of those examinations and reports, so far as completed, has before been detailed. These examinations have been completed in the 3d and the 4th districts, and principally in the 5th and 6th districts. In the others, extensive tracts remain yet to be explored, and especially in the first district, between Cape Sable and Cape Florida, and in the western part of the 7th district. It is represented that large quantities of valuable live oak timber exist on the public, and some on private lands, in those regions which have not yet been accurately examined by the present agents, and hence are not included in the tabular statements.

In the 7th district there are known to be on islands, examined in 1819, many trees remaining, but not yet reported by the present agent for that district; and, on other lands similarly situated, a further number seen, and estimated at about 85,000, in A. D. 1831, by one of our navy officers.

By recurring to the limits of the several districts, as described in the communication from this department at the last session, [Doc. 102, F. No. 2,] and as laid down on the map, it can be seen what parts remain to be examined by the present agents. It is probably about one-third of the whole.

Taking, then, only the medium estimated quantity of 448,750 feet of timber, examined and reported by the agents as remaining on *private* lands, without including Georgia or South Carolina, or any allowance for the one-third, not yet explored, and it would, if all procured for the navy, supply all our demands, estimated at 62,286 feet annually, during seven or eight years. Making every reasonable addition to, or deduction from, the above estimated quantity, and every due allowance for such portions of that quantity as may be sold to the merchant service, and for any other considerations, it is still

manifest, from all the facts before us, that our probable annual wants can, for some years to come, be chiefly supplied by purchases of live oak timber growing on private lands. But whenever the prices of this kind of timber shall rise, so as to indicate a great scarcity on private lands, and an unwillingness or inability, even at those prices, in individuals, either to preserve or to cultivate its growth for sale fast enough to meet our annual demands, I think it will then become our true policy to permit the older and larger trees to be removed for the public use from the public lands. Even before that event, those trees on the public lands which have begun to decay, or, from any cause, have ceased to grow, might be sold advantageously to the contractors in aid of the other supplies obtained from time to time from private sources.

Should a removal in this way be enough to satisfy the balance of all our annual demands, our resources would thus continue inexhaustible for many years; or, until the private sources so fail, that this mode of cutting from the public lands will not furnish a sufficiency for the balance. But if a further indiscriminate removal should become necessary to supply the full amount of all our annual demands, and if we take as correct the medium estimated quantity of 7,232,750 feet of timber, examined and reported by these agents as now remaining on the *public* lands, without including any allowance for what may be found on the above mentioned one-third of these lands not yet explored by them, in some of the districts, that quantity would supply the whole extent of all our annual demands, as at present computed, during about 116 years after the private resources entirely fail.

But it would hardly be found necessary or judicious to retain the whole or any large portion of the sixteen millions of acres of public land in the live oak region, in order to secure the whole of this timber, and then to resort to indiscriminate cutting for a supply of our wants, on the hypothesis that the tree would be spontaneously re-produced, on so large a tract, as soon as it again would be wanted for use. On the contrary, it has been found more economical and useful to reserve only such tracts as are nearest navigable waters, and yield the most and largest trees to an acre: because it is only on such tracts that the value of the timber, when standing, will exceed the usual price of the land; and because nearly, if not quite, a sufficiency of such tracts to furnish all our demands may require, can probably be found within the live oak region, and will not include more than a hundredth part of it as necessary to be reserved, according to some further data which will soon be presented.

But however this may be, a different course from that of an indiscriminate removal of this timber from the public lands reserved, would seem to me proper, when private resources

shall principally fail. Then our annual demands may have become increased by a larger force in commission, or reduced by some diminution in our wants of timber for frames in depot; yet, whether larger or smaller, should the removal from the public lands of only the older and larger trees, and of those which, from any cause, have ceased to grow, not be succeeded, as fast as our demands require, by a sufficient supply, through the careful preservation and the enlargement of the younger and spontaneous growth on the public lands, and through the means and enterprise of private cultivators of the live oak, it will then, in my opinion, become judicious not to cut over our own reserved lands indiscriminately, unless we find our reservations prove large enough to re-produce, in due season, all the timber our wants may then, and probably in future, require.—In any other event we should, to avoid exhausting our supplies, adopt the plan and incur the expense of artificial planting, thinning, and pruning, so far as may be then computed necessary to make up a full and seasonable provision for all our necessities. This should, of course, be done in situations on the reserved public lands adjoining navigable waters, and in all respects most favorable to success. If we ever become obliged to cultivate this tree extensively, I think this "plan or system," pursued in the manner hereafter detailed, will in the language of the resolution now under consideration, be "best calculated to secure to the nation an adequate supply of this material." In appropriate soil, the sprouts from the roots and stump of the live oak, are found to be very numerous and thrifty; and the preservation and trimming of the best of these, bid fair, from experiments already made, both here and abroad, to succeed better than the transplanting of saplings, or the planting of the acorn, in the place where the tree is intended to grow. Should the sprouts not vegetate spontaneously in situations where wanted, then, of course, the planting of the acorn, or transplanting of saplings, would in these situations become necessary. From these sprouts, in a good soil, it is computed that, in fifty years—about the duration of the live oak timber in a vessel—trees will grow of an ample size for ship-building; though in poorer soil, and from the acorn, seventy, eighty, or one hundred years, might be necessary.—The trees, as wanted for use, should be cut and removed only as they reach their full size, or are found too thick for a luxuriant growth, or from any cause have ceased to be thrifty.—Experience abroad has shown, also, that, after an oak tree has ceased growing, though it may remain standing for many, and tradition says of some abroad, hundreds of years, without material injury, yet it is more economical, and the tree is better for naval use, if, soon after it has ceased growing, it be cut, and the timber placed, first in dock, and afterwards under

cover. Such trees not increasing in size or value, might, as before remarked, be sold to advantage to contractors, before a general resort is had to other trees on the public lands, and their places could be profitably occupied by new trees springing up, and annually increasing in size and value.

But in reply to an inquiry made by the committee on live oak, of the last session, on the subject of cutting and depositing timber in sheds on the soil where it grows, I have no doubt, from the cost of building sheds on the ground where the trees are cut, [Doc. No. 85, House of Reps. 19th Congress, 1st. session,] and the inconvenience, in an exigency, of not having our deposites of timber at the places where it may be wanted for use, that the best policy will be to remove our timber to the latter, soon after being cut, rather than to put it in depot on the lands, at a distance from the ship yards where it will be wanted for use.

From twenty to thirty trees to an acre are as many as should be left to grow to maturity. They are seldom found in their natural state, of full size, with half that number on an acre, because many young trees get destroyed by various means; the whole soil, in any one acre, seldom produces the live oak spontaneously, and trees of different species are often found intermingled with it.

Another mode of computation may serve to illustrate our sources of supply, before being compelled to resort much to any artificial system of cultivation.

It will be recollected that our whole annual demands have been estimated at about 62,286, feet; and this, at the medium rate before mentioned, of 50 feet per tree, would require, yearly, 1,245 trees; and at only 20 trees per acre, or half the proportion allowed of English oak, in artificial plantations, would include the growth of 62 acres annually: and calculating 75, the average between 50 and 100 years, as necessary to re-produce the live oak after once cut down, it would take only 4,640 acres to meet our whole annual demand of live oak in all future time, at the present size of our force afloat, and on our present policy in providing for its gradual improvement.—But this estimate is not, in my opinions, sufficiently large as regards the number of acres which may probably be required in their natural condition, to supply all our wants of live oak timber.

From the peculiar character of the growth of the live oak in detached hammocks or trees, and from our system of surveys into only sections, halves, and quarters, the lands hitherto reserved on account of their live oak timber, do not generally contain over two trees to an acre, on an average; and, in very few cases, are there over five full grown and sound live oak trees on an acre, taking the whole of any one reservation.—[No. 102, page 80, February, 1831, Rep. in House of

Reps.] Considering, then, that two such trees to an acre, in the manner of its natural growth, and of one reservation, is a more correct estimate than 20, and that, in such case, 50 feet to a tree, the medium computation, may not be too high, but rather below than above the truth, as to the size of this monarch of the forest, and allowing the largest time of 100 years for a tree to reach maturity, it would only require us to reserve, in all, 62,286 acres to enable us hereafter, without the purchase of more trees or more lands, to have an inexhaustible source of supply of this important material for a navy not larger than our present establishment. Computing only 20 feet to a tree, the smallest estimate, and the number of acres should be increased to 155,710. Computing 80 feet to a tree, the largest estimate, and the number of acres would be reduced to 38,900.

In order to meet the contingencies and injuries from fires, depredations, and other causes, and especially from the probable failure, hereafter, of our title to some of the lands reserved, it may be judicious to reserve, in all, at least 160,000 acres of live oak timber land, which will be nearly three per cent. more than the largest number of acres I have before estimated, and 60 per cent. above the quantity deemed probably sufficient or necessary for our present demands, and present policy as to gradual improvement. Pursuing this course, should we hereafter find that we have a large surplus of timber, some of the reservations ascertained to be least valuable for their live oak can be sold to advantage for cultivation; and if both lands and timber should rise much in value, still further and profitable sales could be made of the lands as the timber is removed from them. In this event, or in case of our demands for live oak becoming likely to be much enlarged at any future time, artificial cultivation could be resorted to on the best reserved lands left, so as easily to increase, in due season, double and quadruple their natural produce of live oak trees to the acre.

We have already reserved, within a few years, 67,417 acres of live oak lands, and on the most liberal estimate, as to a sufficiency, in their natural state, should reserve less than 100,000 acres more, to supply, forever, all that may be required by the demands and policy before mentioned.

More than this further quantity has already been recommended, by the agents, for reservation, on account of the valuable growth on it of live oak, and most of which has not yet been reserved, in consequence of its not having yet been surveyed. The 19,000 acres reserved long ago as 1819, in Louisiana, and not yet re-examined, may be found still so covered with timber as to justify a reliance upon that as a part of the further quantity needed.—[Doc. 178, in March, 1832, pages 25 and 26. Rep. No. 102, p. 71, February, 1831.]

In England, it has been computed that only 102,600 acres,

in artificial cultivation, would be necessary to supply the whole wants, in oak timber, of their vast naval establishment. But, to draw any just comparison, it must be noticed that oak is understood to be about three-fourths, instead of one-fourth, of the whole timber used by them in the construction of public vessels; that their computation of 102,600 acres rests on the estimate of 40 instead of two trees to an acre, and allows only 90 instead of 100 years for the full growth of a tree; while, on the other hand, it calculates the size of the tree but 45 feet on an average, and the duration of a vessel in commission at only 12 1-2, instead of 20 or 40, and perhaps 50 years, and estimates that one quarter of their annual wants will be supplied by prize ships. Should we be able to reserve or purchase, and then cultivate artificially, other lands, with the like number of other kinds of timber trees per acre, and of the like size and durability with those in the estimates in England, we should need only about 15,000 acres of other than live oak lands for all our present naval wants in other kinds of timber. Or, if all parts of our vessels were built of like materials with theirs, we should need, in artificial cultivation, only about 20,000 acres, to furnish a constant and durable supply of all kinds of timber for our navy afloat, while we continue to pursue the policy before mentioned as to its size and improvement. This is a ratio of about one-eighth of what is computed to be wanted in England, of all kinds of naval timber, from all sources. These considerations strengthen my conviction, that the above estimate, in respect to our proper amount of reservations of live oak timber land, is ample for our wants as at present existing, or soon contemplated. But the extent of our reservations already made, and able to be made hereafter, as our surveys are extended, will probably enable us easily to enlarge the quantity, to any amount, which other persons may, from these or any different data, deem essential.

At the same time, I am fully convinced, that whenever we reach a condition rendering artificial cultivation necessary for a full supply of our reasonable wants in live oak timber, whether sooner or later than seems probable from any data furnished in this report, the expense of that kind of cultivation, to the full extent requisite to furnish that supply, ought not to be permitted to deter us from undertaking it. Because I consider live oak timber as invaluable for frames in naval architecture; and a supply of that, or any good substitute, from abroad, would not only render us dependant in so essential an article for national safety, but become very precarious when most needed in war, and be much more costly than the artificial cultivation of the live oak tree on our own soil, where it is indigenous and luxuriant. Besides the independence which would be thus secured for one strong support of one great arm

of our country's defence, we would not appear to depart, as facts now are, from a maxim in political economy, generally sound, to obtain all our supplies "of the best quality, and at the lowest prices," whether at home or abroad. The live oak is a supply "of the best quality," because it is superior in strength, resistance, and hardness, to the celebrated British oak, which forms "the wooden walls" of England. It is, when used for frames, much more durable than that, or even cedar, which the ancients called "the everlasting wood," and in some qualities surpasses the teak, of India, which is confessedly the best timber, for the greatest number or variety of naval purposes, that the research of man has yet discovered. It is a supply at the "lowest prices," also; because British oak, if we could obtain that, would probably cost now, at the port of exportation, exclusive of freight here, about four shillings, or ninety-six cents per foot, when the live oak costs, delivered here, only about 120 cents per foot, on an average; and will last twice, if not thrice, as long, and require only about one-third as much for annual repairs. Our own white oak, at 40 cents a foot, could probably be had in considerable quantities for frames of vessels; but it is somewhat less durable than the British oak, and is obviously, for that reason, coupled with the increased expense for labor as well as materials, in frequent repairs and rebuilding, much less economical than the live oak. The teak, procurable sometimes in Africa, but chiefly in India, and there at over half the price of our live oak, would not, with profit, bear the long transportation to this country; as it will not from India to England, except when made up into vessels, and earning freight.

These comparisons are made on existing prices; but should the present rates vary much hereafter at home, the change may, or may not, extend in a like ratio to prices abroad, when it shall hereafter become necessary to cultivate the live oak, or to seek a substitute; and, of course, the influence of this consideration, as respects the lowest prices, cannot now be calculated accurately for any period except the present one.

Besides the reasons above suggested against any dependance on foreigners for a supply of so important an article, or any known substitute for it, and even against an entire dependance for either of them, on the foresight and enterprise of individuals at home; it should be remembered that deficiencies during one or a few years in other naval materials, such as iron, copper, cordage, canvass, &c. however happening, can, in general, be soon remedied by a larger production or manufacture; but deficiencies in this kind of timber cannot be remedied by producing more in a shorter period than one-half or three fourths of a century: and hence it becomes an object of great public moment to make or insure a suitable and inde-

pendent provision long before hand, of an article so necessary, and so entirely within our own resources.

Of the success of the above mode of artificial cultivation, or of the mode from the acorn, or by transplanting, I entertain no doubt, should it ever become necessary to resort to either of them. Some experiments in this country with the live oak, in the first and last modes, have terminated favorably; and in France and Spain, as well as in England, many trials, chiefly of a species of white oak, and for naval purposes, have, on a large scale, and in all of these modes, proved, in various degrees, successful. When, between 1794, and 1812, timber rose gradually in England from £3 and 4, from which it had not essentially varied during a century; to £8 and 10 per load, the attention of Government, as well as of individuals, became more directed to its artificial cultivation. The Government which, in 1792, had refused to set apart and plant in all, for future public use, 100,000 acres, then recommended by the commissioners of woods and forests, had, within a few years previous to 1812, planted 16,000 acres more than they before cultivated for timber. After the increase of their navy towards the close of the 16th century, and after the great destruction of timber about the middle of the 17th century, partly arising from increased wants, and partly from a diminution in that reverence, which had been almost Druidical, for the oak in forests, parks, and ornamental borders, they found a great scarcity commencing, and large plantations were made, chiefly under the advice of Evelyn, given on application of "the principal officers and commissioners of the navy."

The trees on these plantations having reached maturity, had been chiefly cut down before A. D. 1811. It is said that when the new plantations were made, about 1811, all the old public forests and plantations had not yielded, for many years, 50,000 feet annually. In A. D. 1829, they added to their plantations 2,700 more acres, and had in all, for the growth of navy timber, in February, 1831, about 52,852 acres of public land. [13, v. Parliamentary accounts, page 820.]

But the resources to be derived from these new efforts by the Government, commencing about 1809, could not be available to any great extent, under half a century more, and in the mean time supplies were to be drawn chiefly from private lands at home and from foreign importations. Importations from 1760 to 1788, had constituted about one-tenth of the whole consumption in their navy, and in 1802 they had become about one-fourth. From 1812 to 1819, the average consumption of foreign timber for all purposes, increased so as to be one-third larger than it had been from 1799 to 1811, [Report on Foreign Trade, 1829, appendix 153,] and from 1820 to 1830, it nearly doubled in amount. [Parliamentary debates in 1831, pages 456, 566; 882.]

These great supplies from abroad, sometimes from Brazil, and sometimes from Africa, and the Adriatic, though oftener from the Baltic and America, have not only evinced the extent, the excellence, and variety of English resources abroad, and part of them in her own dependencies, but have contributed, with the high price of land in England, the great incidental expenses of managing their forests and plantations, the long time for the oak to reach maturity, and the reduced prices of timber from such large importations, to check somewhat the favorable opinions generally entertained there towards the continuance of a system of artificial cultivation by the Government. Indeed, some persons have lately proposed an entire abandonment of it, and a sale of the lands for clearing and ordinary cultivation, as better comporting with economy, and the probable facilities of obtaining sufficient and cheap supplies in future from other sources. [Mathews, page 82, on naval timber.] But our situation, as to live oak and live oak lands, as well as other sources of supply, are, and hereafter may be, very different from that of England.

The growth of live oak is, in a great measure, though not entirely, confined to our own country, and none of our supplies have ever yet been obtained abroad. The superior quality of this timber prevents our procuring abroad, at any reasonable expense, a useful substitute; and a state of war from reasons very obvious to most persons, would affect and impair any foreign supply we might seek, much more than it would that of England, while the condition of our live oak soil, owned by individuals, prevents the hope of their making any effort at any thing like the present prices, to preserve, or rear, as is often done abroad, a domestic supply beyond the timber now growing. The low price and great abundance of our public lands, on which the live oak tree spontaneously thrives, will probably enable the Government long to obtain from them a sufficiency to meet all our demands for it, without much attention to its artificial increase; and in any event to cultivate it so far as at any future period may be found necessary, at an expense comparatively small.

But on the facts and estimates herewith submitted, imperfect and inaccurate in many respects, yet as little so as practicable, I can see, in order to secure for our navy, while of its present size, an adequate supply of live oak timber, no occasion at this time, either to make further purchases of private lands on which this tree grows, or to carry the artificial cultivation of it on any of the public lands, beyond what has already been attempted.

With much respect,

LEVI WOODBURY.

To the SPEAKER *of the House of Representatives.*

MEMOIR ON GUNPOWDER.

(Concluded from page 172.)

SECTION VI.—PROOF OF GUNPOWDER.

THE PENDULUM EPROUVETTE.

185. Hutton's vibrating or pendulum eprouvette, is a small cannon, suspended from an axis on which it moves freely: it indicates the force of gunpowder by the degree of recoil, which is measured by an arc of the circle attached to the instrument. It constitutes a good method of trial for a manufactory, when once the standard range has been fixed; but it fails, like all other modes of proof, to indicate a result which may be relied upon as to the absolute quality and general effect of gunpowder. Indeed, it fails to give the real force of gunpowder of the very same manufacture, in which the ingredients are the same, and every thing alike, except a difference in the size of the grain: for instance—

Two ounces of English cannon powder ranged . . . . . 22° 25′
While musket powder from the same cannon powder ranged . . 26 85

Again, with reference to powders of different manipulation, it gives a smaller result to the best powder, as is shewn by the undermentioned trial.

KIND OF POWDER.	Hutton's Eprouvette.	8-inch mortar, 2 oz. powder.	10-in. iron mortar, 2 lbs. powder.
	° ′		
English Cannon powder, 1813	22.25	58 yards.	1003 yards.
Experimental powder, 1829 .	22.92	39 do.	889 do.

186. The English powder, in the first case, ranges a little below the experimental powder, though the two other trials establish its superiority; particularly as the experimental powder was new, and unpressed, and unglazed, and of a somewhat finer grain, while the English powder had undergone the operations of pressing and glazing, and was, besides, sixteen years old. The smaller size of the grain was indeed an advantage to the experimental powder, and perhaps the cause of its ranging so high; but an instrument, influenced so much as this eprouvette is by accidental causes, can never be considered a true indicator of the goodness and strength of gunpowder. Might not the position of the vent in this instrument be altered with good effect? If the charge were to be fired in front, instead of in the rear, the whole of it must of necessity act upon the piece, and none would be blown out unconsumed;—a point of importance in the proof of gunpowder.

COMMON MORTARS.

187. The method of trial best adapted to shew the real inherent strength and goodness of gunpowder, appears to be an eight or ten-inch iron or brass mortar, with a truly spherical solid shot, having not more than one-tenth of an inch windage, and fired with a low charge. The eight-inch mortar, fired with two ounces of powder, is one of the established methods of proof at His Majesty's works. Gunpowders that range equally in this mode of trial may be depended on as being equally strong. Proof trials made in this manner, though necessarily affected in some degree, are not so much influenced as others, by the different sizes of the grain, or degrees of density of the powder, or other disturbing causes arising out of the system of manufacture. I have shewn in the last paragraph the variation that Hutton's eprouvette gave with gunpowder of the same manufacture, differing only in the size of the grain; but perfect similarity of strength in the same gunpowder was indicated by the mode now spoken of: thus—

English cannon powder, two ounces, ranged	. . . . .	58	yds.
Musket powder from do. ranged also	. . . . .	58	do.

188. Large and small grained gunpowders will not, however, by any means, constantly range with the perfect similarity indicated by the foregoing instance: but it appears to me that this method of proof for fine grain is not necessary; for as fine grained powder is not intended to be used in ordnance, there appears to be no good reason why it should be tried by it.

189. For cannon powder I think the eight or ten-inch mortar the best practical mode of proof at present known; and the reason is, that when used with a low charge, out of a great multitude and diversity of experiments, I know not of a solitary instance in which it has failed to exhibit a superiority on the part of superior gunpowder, and an inferiority with respect to inferior gunpowder; although as I have before shewn, this result is not a necessary consequence in all cases.

190. The propellent power of gunpowder being the result of the decomposition of its parts, it appears evident that no proof can be depended upon as a test of quality, unless it be one in which all the parts ignite before the projectile is moved. If the resisting obstacle commence its flight before the entire combustion of the charge, the quantity of space it passes through at the period of total deflagration will vary in different powders, and be dependent on the system of manipulation; and as the force or power of fired gunpowder is in proportion to the space it occupies (142), it might easily be demonstrated that in some

methods of proof, especially that of the French mortar eprouvette, a small difference in the motion of the shell at the moment of the final explosion of the charge will make a great difference in the range; the results will, therefore, in such case, be uncertain, and the proof, as a test of quality, fallacious.

191. In the mortar trial, with a small quantity of powder, I think it almost certain that the whole is in a state of ignition before the shot or shell is sensibly moved. The chamber of an eight-inch mortar is formed to contain two and a quarter pounds of powder; when, therefore, only two ounces are placed in it, there is left an unoccupied space equal to sixteen or seventeen times the bulk of the charge. Consequently, upon explosion, the sudden blast of the first portions that ignite, displaces the remainder, which is blown about, dispersed, and scattered throughout the chamber of the mortar, and would escape were it not retained by the shell; but meeting with this opposition it receives a momentary check, while, at the same instant, being penetrated and enveloped on all sides by the flame already generated, it immediately kindles and explodes; and so the whole force of the charge acts simultaneously on the opposing obstacle, and propels it to a distance proportionate to the absolute inherent strength of the powder. This illustration I think holds good whether the powder be pressed or unpressed, hard or soft, fine or coarse; so that the operations of pressing and glazing, and other disturbing causes, appear to be immaterial, or at least are of less consequence in this than in other modes of proof, as to the result. Sufficient space to explode in, appears to be the true principle on which cannon gunpowder should be tried as to its strength and quality.* Whether the powder be bad or good the test is equally fair, in either case, and therefore unobjectionable; and actual experiment most amply testifies that inferior gunpowder, so situated, invariably ranges below gunpowder of superior quality, which is, as I have just observed, a result that does not necessarily take place in other modes of trial.

192. It may however be objected against this test, that there is something in it not properly understood, which occasions gunpowder of a particular system of manufacture to give higher results than other powders, though service-charges shew them to be in no way its inferior; and that therefore service-charges constitute the true test of quality, and not any special or picked method of proof. I answer, it has already been proved that different operations in the manufacture make a wide difference in practical effect; therefore, in judging of the quality or goodness of different gunpowders, regard to the system of manufacture is imperatively required; it cannot be dis-

* Musket or fine grained powder may also be proved in the same way; but the methods proposed in paragraph 264 appear to be preferable.

regarded and put aside as a point of unimportance. But, if the one powder be in no way inferior to the other, of what consequence is the manner in which it be tried, whether by service-charges or by any other? Equal causes produce equal effects, and will do so in all cases and under all circumstances; but if causes supposed to be equal vary in some of their results, it may be considered certain that a fallacy exists in the supposition entertained respecting their quality. If, in any case, one gunpowder will project a shell double or quadruple the distance of another, there is strong evidence of inferiority on the part of one of them; and if the inferiority should by chance appear to be on the side of the best powder, which seems paradoxical, I know only of two ways of accounting for it; viz. either by injury sustained, or by giving it such an excessive and unusual degree of density as is never likely to occur in practice.

193. I shall here adduce several examples of the relative inherent strength of the Indian powders as exhibited by the principle of trial now under discussion, and compared with His Majesty's powder as the standard of quality. I have only to remark, that I have no doubt if all the powders were to be tried in an 18 or 24-pounder gun, with a full service-charge, at an elevation of 1 1-2 or 2 degrees, the difference of range between any of them would be hardly worth notice. Such has been the case with them heretofore, though not with the particular powders here experimented on.

ORDNANCE.	WEIGHT OF				CANNON POWDERS.				
	Powder.		Shell.		English, 1813.	Ishapore, 1825.	Allahabad, 1825.	Madras, 1825.	Bombay, 1825.
	lbs.	*oz.*	*lbs.*	*oz.*	*yards.*	*yards.*	*yards.*	*yards.*	*yards.*
8-in.iron mortar	—	2	64	—	62	33	37	43	18
10-in. ditto	—	2	96	—	26	18	20	18	3½
8-in. ditto	—	2	65	8	41	23	31	28	10
10-in. ditto	1	—	87	—	425	287	286	295	84

The sixty-four pound shell was of brass; all the others were of iron.

194. Let it be understood that this method of trial (187) is a test only of what I have denominated the real inherent strength of gunpowder, and not of general practical effect; for powders that range very differently in this proof may yet range alike

with high service-charges. I know nothing more baffling or difficult than to determine in what the real inherent strength of gunpowder consists, or how it is to be ascertained (171); but I have preferred fixing it to the present test, thereby giving it locality, than to use the expression in a general and undefined sense, and making it consequently altogether unintelligible.

195. In a scientific examination of the quality and strength of gunpowder, there are other points to be attended to besides mere range-distance: but as actual range is, at last, the *sine qua non*, the indispensable requisition of practice, it follows that trial by service-instruments is eventually the only final test to which gunpowder ought to be substantially submitted: for, however ingenious other instruments may be, if their indications are not to be depended on in actual service, the results they give must be considered but trifling and unsatisfactory, and of no real value. The established method of proof at St. Thomas's Mount, with a ten-inch mortar, ninety-six pound shell, and two pounds of powder, is therefore a very good test; but it must be borne in mind that it is not at all indicative of the absolute good quality of gunpowder. It answers well both for the purpose of ascertaining that no declension occurs in the manufacture, and to determine the practical effect of a large charge; but it by no means points out the real quality and goodness of the article manufactured. Captain Bishop appears to have established this proof in 1801, or to have confirmed the use of it; but his opinion of it, after he returned from Europe, where he had opportunities of acquiring more accurate information, was not what it had been, but is thus expressed in a letter to Lieutenant-Colonel Frith, dated March 2, 1824. "Our mode of proof is not dependable. It is rude and inaccurate. There are causes which may make very strong powder appear inferior to that which is weak. This, however, can never be ascertained with a ten-inch mortar and two pounds of powder. Some other time, perhaps, I will offer you an explanation of this paradox."

CARBINE PROOF.

196. A musket or carbine barrel is fitted up in a strong framing, loaded with four drachms of powder and a steel ball, and fired against wet half-inch elm boards, or boards of any tough wood, sliding into grooves in a box, three quarters of an inch distant from one another, and the first thirty feet distant from the muzzle of the barrel. The usual range is the penetration of from fourteen to sixteen boards. This is a good method of proof for musketry and rifle powder; and I know of no practical objection against it.*

* I have said nothing, heretofore, of the common powder-triers, because they are not to be depended upon as indicating the real goodness of gun-

FLASHING.

197. Four drachms of powder are laid in a small neat heap on a clean polished copper plate. The heap is fired at the apex by a red-hot iron. The explosion should be sharp and quick: not tardy nor lingering; it should produce a sudden concussion in the air; and the force and power of that concussion ought to be judged of by comparison with that produced by powder of known good quality. No sparks should fly off, nor should beads or globules of alkaline residuum, be left on the copper. If the copper be left clean, *i. e.* without gross foulness, and no lights, *i. e.* sparks, be seen, the ingredients may be considered to have been carefully prepared, and the powder to have been well manipulated, particularly if pressed and glazed: but if the contrary be the result, there has been a want of skill or of carefulness manifested in the manufacture.

198. I have heard it observed that this test is worth nothing; because, although large-grained powder may leave beads and foulness after explosion, yet small-grained powder of the same manipulation will exhibit none, but leave the plate clean; and that, therefore, no judgment can be formed of the quality of powder from it. But it has this advantage: if large-grained powder does exhibit foulness, it plainly shews that that powder is badly made; for His Majesty's cannon powder flashes off as rapidly as the rifle powder, leaving no such indication behind it. Even solid press-cake will leave no residuum. It may therefore be considered as certain, whenever such indications do occur in large-grained powder, that it has been badly manufactured, and contains impure ingredients. And if such be the character of the cannon powder, the finer grain of the same manipulation must possess the same character also, although fewer indications of it, or none at all possibly, may be seen after the experiment.

REMARKS.

199. Having thus reviewed the several methods of proof which appeared to be the most deserving of notice, and having, I hope, established, that the only principle on which gunpowder should be tried as to its true strength and quality, is that in which all the charge explodes before the projectile is sensibly

powder. But if the sportsman should wish to ascertain the comparative strength of his powder by an instrument of this kind, as ingenious and useful a one as any I am acquainted with, is made by "W. Moore, 78, Edgware Road, London." It is a steel spring in the shape of an octant, with a scale graduated in pounds, for measuring the force; so that it would answer as well for a weighing-machine as for proving gunpowder. It embodies a fine illustration of the philosophical axiom that action and reaction are in opposite directions and equal; and accordingly when fixed, the instrument has no recoil. The charge is 10 grains; and this quantity of His Majesty's rifle powder I found gave a result of from 42 to 52 lbs.

acted on, I shall add but a word or two in correlative illustration of this point, as also with reference to the action of light and dense powder when fired in large quantity.

200. A charge of gunpowder, confined in a piece of ordnance, may be considered as a short bulky train. In a forty-two pounder, this train is nearly two feet long. Now it is obvious, that if the powder be angular, soft, and porous, it will inflame with greater rapidity, and a larger part of the charge explode within the gun, than when the powder is hard, and without sharp angles, and when the surface of the grain is polished. Hence, in probably all cases where the charge is closely confined, and the shot or shell touches it, unpressed gunpowder will range higher than pressed and glazed gunpowder of equal quality; but the results may be variable, and not constant, should pressed and glazed gunpowder, although of superior quality, be tried against mill-cake powder, or powder of a soft friable grain, of a different system of manufacture. Sometimes gunpowder is pressed and not glazed. Unglazed pressed powder will give a higher range also than glazed powder, because the former retains its sharp angles and roughness of surface, which are both favourable to rapid combustion.

201. If, therefore, pressed and glazed gunpowder be tried with service-charges, against unpressed and unglazed powder, and their range prove equal, and the decision on their respective qualities be that they are equally strong and good, the decision, though founded on the actual results of practice, is not substantial; for the unpressed and unglazed powder ought to give a higher range than the pressed and glazed powder, and a proportionate allowance ought to be made. In pronouncing on the merits of different gunpowders, the artillery officer should bear this in remembrance. (130.)

OBSERVATIONS ON THE DEVIATION OF THE COMPASS;

With examples of its fatal influence in some melancholy and dreadful shipwrecks. By the Rev. WILLIAM SCORESBY, F. R. S. &c.

The deviation of the compass on shipboard, is that error or anomaly in the needle, from the correct magnetic meridian, produced by the magnetic condition of the vessel. It is but a modern discovery, and until within a very few years, did not obtain much consideration; and even now, is very far from having obtained that general attention to which its great importance in practical navigation so abundantly entitles it. A few personal observations, and well ascertained facts, will be sufficient to prove that a correct knowledge of the deviation must greatly contribute to the safety of persons traversing the

ocean; and that ignorance of it must expose all persons engaged in commercial transactions by sea, to a fearful risk (a risk by no means generally appreciated or accredited) of life and property.

The amount of deviation necessarily varies, because of the unequal character of the disturbing force, not only in different vessels, but in the same vessel in every change of magnetic dip, and on every change of course. In very high magnetic latitudes, the deviation may be such as to influence the compass more than the directive action of the earth; but in equatorial regions, it will be generally so inconsiderable as to be of little importance in practical navigation. On two or more points of the compass, the deviating force being coincident in direction with the earth's magnetism, is not observable (these are denominated "the points of change"); whilst its influence rises to a maximum in the ratio of the sines of the course (nearly) on both sides of the points of change. Most commonly the points of change will be found to occur when the direction of the ship's head is north or south, or nearly so; and the maximum on or near an east or west course. But to this rule there are many exceptions.

In an ordinary way, a vessel sailing *up* the English Channel, steering E. or E. by S. will probably have only 25 deg. or 26 deg. of westerly variation, instead of 27 deg. or 28 deg.; the difference of 2 deg. or 3 deg. or about a quarter of a point, being the effect of the local attraction, which, in thick weather, or during the night,, must produce a serious error in the reckoning. In going *down* the Channel, on the contrary, the actual variation of the compass on board the vessel will probably be 29 deg. or 30 deg. instead of 27 deg. or 28 deg., the variation on shore; which difference, if unknown to the captain or pilot, must throw the vessel considerably to the southward of her position. Even more than this quantity of error was fully proved by Mr. Bain, whose "Essay on the Deviation" contains a number of useful practical observations on the important subject on which it treats; and a still larger quantity of *error*, amounting, when at a maximum, to 6 deg. or 7 deg. of deviation, or even more, has subsequently been discovered in very many of our ships of war under the magnetic dip and condition of our own coast.

Bain also found, in navigating the river St. Lawrence, that it was necessary to steer a different course coming down from the opposite one he steered on going up. Owing to this circumstance (the local attraction,) one of our ships of war, the Zealous, had a very narrow escape in going up that river. During a fog, this vessel ran so near the shore, not far from Cape Chat, that she was in nineteen fathoms water; and had not the fog fortunately cleared at the moment, she would probably have been wrecked. Many of the losses that have occurred in the

St. Lawrence are, he reasonably concludes, attributable to the local attraction.

In crossing the Atlantic to the W. or S. W. vessels will always be found to the southward and eastward of their reckoning; and in an equal degree if passing to the north-eastward or eastward, the error being still towards the S. E.

In the voyage to Greenland, I have invariably found the deviation acting with the most marked effects; so much so, indeed, for some years before I knew any thing about the cause, that I found it necessary to allow only two points westerly variation outward, instead of two and a half, and three homeward; in order that some sort of agreement might be found between the reckoning and the actual place of the ship. The total effect of the deviation on a passage from Spitzbergen to England commonly amounts to 4 deg. or 6 deg. of longitude; and almost all strangers to that navigation, unprovided with chronometers, instead of making Shetland, the place at which the whalers aim, fall upon or near the coast of Norway, 160 or 180 miles distant. Even Capt. Phipps, on his return from his Polar Discovery, committed this error; but its cause was then unknown.

The error was usually attributed to the operation of an easterly current; but it undoubtedly belongs, in a great degree, if not entirely, to the deviation.

The ship Baffin, which I recently commanded in the Greenland fishery, possessed a very large and uncommon measure of local attraction. The first intimation which we had of this dangerous influence, was on passing on a north-easterly course to the eastward of Faroe Islands. In one day's run, during a gale of wind, the difference of latitude, as found by observation, was less by *almost a degree* than that determined by calculation,—an error which, if ascribed entirely to the local attraction on the course steered, would have indicated a quantity of deviation amounting to nearly two points! Though this amount, however, was subsequently found to be considerably in excess, yet the absolute quantity in a high latitude, where the dip of the needle was about 80 deg. proved to be 17 deg. on a S. S. W. course! The dangerous influence of such a deviation will be readily appreciated by a simple example.

Suppose the Baffin to have sailed with a fair wind 100 leagues on S. S. W. course, per compass (the variation being, say 42 deg. W.) and then back again 100 leagues on a N. N. E. course, per compass, it is evident that, if there were no deviation or other cause of error, she would return exactly to the point from whence she started. But, in consequence of the deviation only, her actual position would prove to be 123 miles to the eastward, and 55 to the northward of the place from whence she set out—the deviation, as above, being 17 deg.

southerly when steering S. S. W. and 8 1-4 easterly, as also determined by observation, when steering N. N. E.

Or, supposing the same ship to sail 200 leagues on a S.S.W. course, (a course often pursued on the homeward passage from the Greenland Sea,) the error in the reckoning, neglecting the deviation, would be 86.4 miles too far southerly, and 160.8 miles too far westerly! That is, the ship would prove to be 189 miles to the eastward and northward (or in the direction E. 27 deg. N. true) of her position, as calculated without the application of a correction for a deviation. Such an error, existing without its being known or compensated, it is evident, might be productive of the most fatal consequences.

Hence, besides the many hair-breadth escapes to which navigators have been exposed from ignorance of the deviation, there can be no doubt that some of the most dreadful shipwrecks which are to be found in our naval annals are to be ascribed to the same cause. I shall mention an instance or two, where very fatal consequences have resulted from ignorance of, or inattention to, the deviation of the compass.

A fleet of sixty-nine sail of merchant ships bound to the W. Indies, sailed from Cork, under the convoy of His Majesty's ships Carysfort and Apollo, on the 16th of March, 1804. On the 27th they were out of sight of land, with a fair wind blowing strong, under which they steered W. S. W. until the 31st. At noon of Sunday, 1st April, they observed in latitude 40 deg. 51 min. N., longitude, by account, 12 deg. 29 min. W. At 8 P. M. of the same day, the wind shifted to S. W. and began to blow very hard: course about S. S. E. During the night, the Apollo lost some of her canvass, and had to reduce sails to a foresail, with main and mizen storm staysails. At 3 1-2 A.M. of the next morning, when by their reckoning they were above 100 miles from any land, the Apollo, to the astonishment of every one on board, struck the ground. After beating over a shoal, she was again afloat for about five minutes; she then met the ground, and beat with such tremendous violence, that it was apprehended she would instantly go to pieces. Getting however, at length firmly wedged on shore, she became more quiet; but the sea broke continually over her. At day light, many other vessels were found to be on shore; and the sailors discovered that they were on the coast of Portugal, near Cape Mondego. It is unnecessary for me to detail the sad events which succeeded, excepting the general results of this dreadful accident. The Apollo being at a distance from the beach, and the gale continuing for three or four days, lost sixty of her crew, who perished from cold, drowning, hunger, and other circumstances, connected with their perilous situation. Many adhered to the wreck for about sixty hours, sustaining, during this period, the most intense anxiety and severity of suffering,

from cold, wet and exhaustion, without either meat or drink. Along with the Apollo, twenty-nine sail of merchantmen were likewise wrecked; some of these foundered with all hands, and most of the others lost from ten to twelve men each. The total loss of lives has been estimated at 250 or 300 men.

This fatal accident has very generally been ascribed to the carelessness and inattention of the Commodore; but, from what has been observed, it will, I think, appear most probable, that the deviation of the compass was the occasion of the calamity. An officer, from whose narrative the preceding facts were derived, acknowledges, that no one expected the ship to be near land, and that when the ship struck, they imagined they were upon some unknown shoal. It is indeed possible that part of the error might have been owing to currents; but as we know that the deviation in men-of-war, on a course S. 29 deg. W. and a distance of 700 miles (the course and distance between Cork and Cape Mondego,) would, in many cases, be upwards of a degree of longitude, we may reasonably consider the deviation as a material cause in this disaster. The Commodore was no doubt chargeable with a want of that prudent and watchful jealousy of mere dead reckoning, which, under Providence, is one of the best safeguards in practical navigation.

Of a nature somewhat similar, but vastly more calamitous, was the loss of His Majesty's ships St. George of 98 guns, Defiance of 74 guns, and Hero of 74 guns, in the winter of 1811–12.

The Hero, Captain Newman, with the Grasshopper sloop, Captain Fanshaw, sailed December 18, 1811, from Wingo Sound, in the Cattegat, with the Egeria and the Prince William, armed ship, and a convoy of 120 sail. This vessel, the Hero, instead of standing well to the westward, to compensate for the deviation and action of a north-westerly wind, steered the direct compass course for the Downs: and having, in the night of the 23d, separated from most of the convoy, she struck the ground in a heavy squall of wind and sleet, upon the Haak Sand, near the Texel Island. Some of the convoy which kept by her, shared the same fate; but the greater part, aware, apparently, of the danger into which they were running, hauled off to the westward and escaped. The Hero, after enduring the violence of the concussions against the ground during the night, was seen in the morning totally dismasted and lying on her beam ends. She soon went to pieces, and the state of the weather preventing assistance reaching her, all the people, with the exception of eight who were washed ashore, perished with her.—*Naval Chronicle* 1812, p. 43.

Though thus stranded on the coast of Holland, the Captain, it appears, was so confident of his being sufficiently removed from that shore, that when the ship was found to be in danger,

he ordered her to be steered to the S. or S. S. E. (a course leading directly upon the sand,) from the supposition that he was upon some shoal on the British coast! Surely a person entrusted with the command of a line of battle ship, could not be so ignorant of the common rules of navigation as to fall into such a disaster by a mere blunder, especially when different persons in the ship must have kept a reckoning, and mutually secured themselves against such a chance of error. There was doubtless a great want of prudence shown by the Commodore, yet I imagine that the deviation, which he had doubtless neglected to take into the account, had a great share in producing the catastrophe.

The St. George and Defiance were circumstanced a little differently. The former, under Admiral Reynolds, had been dismasted in the Baltic, but being refitted and considered capable of performing the passage, she made the attempt, accompanied by the Defiance.

Unfortunately, they steered a direct compass course, and being overtaken with the same gale under which the Hero suffered, both ships went on shore on the western coast of North Jutland. Of the crew of the Defiance, which went to pieces half an hour after striking, only six men were saved, who got to shore on pieces of the wreck. Eleven of the crew of the St. George most providentially escaped in a similar way; "and when the last of them left the ship on the afternoon of the 25th, the Admiral and Captain were lying dead beside each other on the quarter deck, together with the greater part of the crew.—Only about fifty remained alive, whose cries were heard till it was dark. The ensuing night terminated their sufferings."

The number of persons that suffered in these three ships, included the whole of the officers on board, amounting to nearly 2,000, being a greater loss of life in British seamen, than has occurred in some of the most splendid battles in which our fleets have been engaged.

Under circumstances, I believe, somewhat similar to those of the Hero, was lost the Minotaur of 74 guns, Captain Barrett, on the Haak Sands, at the mouth of the Texel, on the night of the 22d of December, 1810. She left Gottenburg on the 15th, in company with the Plantagenet and the Loire, with sixty sail of ships under convoy, in tempestuous weather. During the gale she separated from the ships in company, most of which, if not all, made their escape. One hundred and ten of the crew of the Minotaur succeeded in saving themselves in the boats; the remainder, about three hundred and sixty in number, perished.

Towards the production of all these dreadful calamities, the deviation of the compass, I am persuaded, greatly contributed. This, by a very little calculation, we shall be able to render ex-

tremely probable, if not to prove. The distance from Bovenbergen, on the north-west coast of Jutland, to Yarmouth Roads, is 330 miles on a true course S. 42 deg. W., or course per compass, (the variation being 25 deg. S. 67 deg. W.) Let the main deviation of a vessel on an east or west course be 5 deg., a quantity frequently met with and sometimes exceeded, and let the points of change be north and south, such a vessel on coming from the Baltic, and steering S. 67 deg. W., or W. S. W. nearly, will have 4 1-2 westerly deviation,—that is, by the attraction of the vessel, the north point of the compass will be drawn towards the west 4 1-2 deg. By this deviation, therefore, if no allowance be made for it, she will be carried, within the limits of the proposed distance, twenty-six miles to the south-eastward of her reckoning. Now it is very evident from a simple inspection of the chart of the German Ocean and English Channel, that had there been an allowance of twenty-six miles made on the courses of the vessels already mentioned as having been lost on the Haak Sand, an allowance which the wind at the time would have amply admitted, they would have all gone considerably to the westward of every danger, and the two men-of war, the Hero and Minotaur, and four transports, together with above 1,000 men, would have been saved.

As to the other case, (the St. George and Defiance,) I am not sufficiently acquainted with all the circumstances to speak decidedly of the influence of the local attraction. But I think it exceedingly probable, that had their commanders been fully aware of the deceptive influence of this, then little understood phenomenon, they would at all events have steered a course so much more westerly, as might, by possibility, have preserved them from the catastrophe which ensued.

Various methods have been devised for the discovery and correction of this insidious influence, some of which it may be proper, in conclusion of this article, briefly to describe.

The first regular process employed for the determination of the "deviation" was to take the bearing of a distant object by a compass in the binnacle, whilst the ship was laid at anchor or at moorings, and successively to observe the relative bearings when the ship's head was put on each point of the compass in succession, as she was gradually "swung" round. In this case the bearings which were found to accord with the correct magnetic meridian determined the points of change, or those positions of the ship's head in which the compass gave correct indications; and the differences of the bearings in all other positions of the ship's head, indicated the quantity of local attraction on the several courses.

Another method which I adopted in my practice was still more simple. A compass was secured at the main top gallant mast-head, where, being remote from all iron, and directly

above the attraction of the ship, it was found to give the *correct magnetic position* on every course alike. This was made the standard compass. Comparing, therefore, the course steered by the binnacle compass with that indicated by the standard, which could be done as frequently as requisite in calm weather and a smooth sea, the deviation in that particular position of the ship's head, was at once determined. Occasionally a whole series of differences was observed, so that the deviation on every course might be known.

A beautiful and philosophical detector of the deviation has for some time been in use in the navy, the invention of Mr. Barlow, in which a plate of iron is temporaneously affixed in proximity to the steering compass, so as exactly to double the influence of the ordinary attraction of the ship; this increase upon the usual deviation affords, if the position of the plate be correct, a measure of the local attraction produced by the iron in the vessel. The discovery of the position of the plate, however, is a matter of more experimental nicety than can be usually expected from the men of any profession as a body; and no provision that I am aware of, short of a new determination of the position of the plate, can be obtained for such accidental changes of the local attraction, as ships in general are liable to on any change of position in their guns or other masses of iron on board. Where, however, the iron in the vessel remains unaltered, both in quantity and position, Mr. Barlow's plate will, unquestionably, be found capable of exhibiting the influence of the local attraction, generally, throughout the globe, not only with useful, but even philosophical accuracy.

Another invention for the same purpose, remains only to be noticed, which is, the beautiful apparatus of Lieutenant Colonel Graydon of the Engineers, denominated by him the "Celestial Compass."

This ingenious instrument, by a beautiful arrangement of graduated arcs and circles, is so adjusted for the latitude of the place and declination of the sun, that a moveable arm, bearing a lens for the concentration of the sun's rays to a point at the axis of the instrument, can be made to traverse in an oblique plane exactly coincident, from the eastern to the western horizon, with the plane of the sun's motion. The speck from the rays of the sun, concentrated by passing through the lens, is received upon a small disk of ivory, and made to coincide by a vertiginous motion of the instrument, with a dot at the centre of the disk. As, however, the speck from the lens, when the instrument is adjusted for latitude and declination, will always fall either above or below the centre of the disk, except when the azimuth of the arm, in reference to the instrument, is the same as that of the sun in reference to the earth, the simple act of placing the instrument so that the speck may fall up-

on the dot, will of necessity put it in the *exact meridional position*. By comparing, then, the course steered by the binnacle compass with the true meridian pointed out by the celestial compass, the variation and deviation conjointly will, under existing circumstances, be correctly exhibited, as it were by direct observation, or, which may be of equal importance, the *true* direction of the ship's head will be at once determined.—The *apparent time* is likewise given by the horary circle, without circulation or additional trouble. And besides these properties, so useful and important in practical navigation, the celestial compass has other capabilities, such as the determination of the *latitude of the place*, within remarkably small limits, by a single observation; yet, in this case, as in all others in which the instrument is used, every result is independent of the visible horizon.

This instrument, so scientific in principle, and so strikingly satisfactory in its results, especially as regards the determination of the local attraction of ships, will, it is to be hoped, when better known, find general acceptance with nautical men.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

ARMY REGULATIONS.

"1029. The senior officer shall, in every instance, have the choice of quarters, in succession from the highest to the lowest grade, except that in regular barracks or cantonments, company officers shall be stationed convenient to their companies."

"1031. On the arrival of an officer at a post, if he be entitled to quarters, he shall immediately make a written requisition on the quartermaster to that effect, who shall in all cases furnish *public* quarters when there are any vacant."

"1040. Officers attending courts martial, under circumstances which entitle them to the extra compensation provided by law for that service, cannot claim the allowance of fuel and quarters for the time; the latter allowance, however, shall always be accorded to them, under the restriction of one room to each, whenever there are *public* quarters vacant at the post where the court is convened."

General Regulations for the Army.

The subject of the paragraphs cited above,—the assignment of quarters to officers,—is one which we have been induced to examine. The conflicting opinions entertained on this subject, have caused it to remain unsettled, in practice, in our army; and we have reason to know that it has been the source of much discussion; of many heart-burnings; and of some unkindly feelings, among those who are affected by the operation of the varying rules adopted in relation to it, at different times, and on different occasions.

The paragraphs at the head of this article contain all that is to be found in the General Regulations for the army, in direct relation to the assignment of quarters to officers; and in them we are to search for the rule that should govern in making this assignment; and this rule will be clearly in accordance with law—regarding the regulations as such—if it is fairly deducible from the import and meaning of these paragraphs.

What then is the import of these paragraphs? What is their fair construction, resulting from the apparent intendment of the framers of the General Regulations? We have read them attentively, and in connection; and thus considered, and in this relation, they have impressed us with the conviction, that they are fairly susceptible of but one construction—a construction so evident and palpable, that no mind, accustomed to the interpretation of law, could vary it; and so supported by the concurrent parts of each, as to excite in us some surprise that any misapprehension should have existed, or difference of opinion been entertained, on this subject.

In the first paragraph cited, it is affirmed, that "the senior officer shall, in every instance, have the choice of quarters, in succession from the highest to the lowest grade, &c." and if we were to be decided by this paragraph alone,—if the General Regulations said nothing more on this subject—there might then exist some ground for a difference of opinion in relation to it; but the two other cited paragraphs relate to this subject, and clearly evidence the intendment of the law on this point. That the senior officer shall have the choice of quarters, in succession from the highest to the lowest grade, we readily admit. But what is the true import and meaning of "*choice* of quarters in succession?" Read the second paragraph above. What relation has that paragraph to *choice*? What *choice* does *it* seem to convey?

But let us facilitate the investigation, and render it perhaps more satisfactory, by stating the construction which an attentive perusal of these paragraphs has impressed on our mind:—an impression cherished by a deep conviction of its truth.

When a garrison or cantonment is to be originally occupied by a regiment or a detachment of troops, it is conceded that the officers would have the selection of quarters, the senior first, and each in succession, from the highest to the lowest grade; or when two or more officers report, at the same time, for duty at a post then occupied by troops, the senior would be entitled to the first assignment of quarters, to be made by the quartermaster from the *vacant* quarters at that post; and his choice of those *vacant* quarters would certainly be allowed as his right, and would constitute the rule of assignment. But this choice and assignment must be made of the *vacant* quarters at the post.

We deny that quarters which have been assigned, and are occupied by officers, are *vacant* quarters; or subject to any other assignment by the quartermaster while they are thus occupied. We deny that the quartermaster has any right to remove an officer from his quarters to gratify the wishes or caprice of any other officer, if he occupies his legal allowance, and if they have been regularly assigned him. We deny the right of any officer—except the commanding officer of the post, who is always the judge of the fitness of his own location, and its relation to the discharge of his official duties—to remove any other officer from quarters which he occupies by assignment as legally allowed. It is conceded that the commanding officer of a post, may remove a company officer from quarters of his choice, and which he occupies by assignment. But for what purpose, and to what extent should this power be exercised by a commanding officer? To what extent do the regulations seem to contemplate its exercise? Certainly not for the gratification of private feelings, or the wishes of particular individuals. Would it be in accordance with the spirit of our laws and regulations for a commanding officer to remove officers from the best or most comfortable quarters at a post, in order to accommodate his own domestic attendants? He has the power to do this. He may order an officer where he pleases; and the officer would obey. But this advances nothing in establishing the *right* to trample upon the legal provisions that have been made for the health and comfort of other and younger officers. The last clause of the first paragraph indicates most clearly for what purpose, and to what extent, this power should be exercised by a commanding officer. The sole object for such removal in the contemplation of the regulations, is the discharge of official duty. "In regular barracks or cantonments, company officers shall be stationed convenient to their companies;" and we conceive that any removal of an officer from his quarters by a commanding officer of a post, unless made to station him more convenient to his company, or with some view to the better performance of his official duties, is a violation of right, and a perversion of justice.

This is our construction. We think it the fair interpretation of the regulations on this subject; and we will endeavor to shew that it is supported by the clearest reason.

The first paragraph gives to officers a choice of quarters according to rank. The meaning of this paragraph is clearly this: when two or more officers are to be supplied with quarters at the same time, the senior of these officers shall have the first choice of the vacant quarters at the post; but when these officers are furnished with their legal allowance of quarters, these quarters are then no longer vacant, and they cease to be available for further assignment, until they are vacated by these

officers. And to remove any doubt that arises as to the extent of this paragraph, in its application as a rule, to the various cases that occur in actual service, we must refer to other parts of the regulations to ascertain its true import, and the extent of its operation. The second paragraph of our citations has a direct relation to this subject, and clearly indicates the intent and meaning, as well as the force and extent, of the first. "On the arrival of an officer at a post," he shall be furnished with "*public* quarters where there are any vacant;" and to this effect he shall make a written requisition on the quartermaster. Is there any thing like a right of choice here conveyed? If an officer, in the situation here indicated, had a right to make choice, according to rank, of all the public quarters at the post, this paragraph would seem to be superfluous. The officer would have nothing to do but to select his quarters, and notify his selection to the quartermaster, requiring any junior officer to be removed. But this is not the spirit of this paragraph. It conveys no choice whatever, except of *vacant* quarters; and an officer, on his arrival at a post, is required to make a written application to the quartermaster, because the quartermaster alone is supposed to know what quarters are vacant, and therefore available for assignment.

What is meant by the word *vacant* at the end of the second paragraph? Will it be contended that it has no relation to the three words "furnish public quarters," which precede it? Let us examine the third paragraph which clearly indicates the true import of the word *vacant*, and its relation to *public quarters* that are to be furnished. There has never existed a doubt respecting the meaning of this paragraph. It is too clear and explicit to admit a doubtful interpretation. Officers attending courts martial, under the circumstances there stated, are not entitled to claim any allowance of quarters; but they shall be accorded to them, "whenever there are public quarters vacant." What is the meaning of "*public quarters vacant*" in this place? Is there a meaning in these words here, different from that of "*public quarters where there are any vacant*," in the second paragraph? We conceive not. The two sentences in these different paragraphs have too direct a relation to the same subject, and are too nearly the same in expression, to afford any ground for an opinion that a meaning was intended to be conveyed by the one, different from the meaning of the other. But officers attending courts martial, under the circumstances set forth in the third paragraph, have no right to remove a junior officer from his quarters for their own accommodation; for they are to be allowed quarters, in such cases, only when there are "public quarters vacant;" and "public quarters vacant" in this place, has the same meaning—which we conceive cannot be doubted—with "public quarters where there are any vacant,"

in the second paragraph; therefore, "on the arrival of an officer at a post, if he be entitled to quarters," he has no right to remove a junior officer from the occupation of his legal allowance of quarters that have been regularly assigned him; but he shall be furnished by the quartermaster, on his written application to that effect.

This deduction is too clear to be controverted; and it appears to us irresistibly conclusive.

We might extend this article by an enumeration of some of the inconveniences we have witnessed in the service, produced by a misconception of the spirit of the regulations on this subject: but we waive the ungrateful task. We were led to this discussion from a personal knowledge that there is no fixed and permanent rule, recognised by all, and governing all, in the assignment of quarters; and consequently inconveniences arise, and dissatisfaction is produced. We have known officers sometimes denied their *seeming* rights of seniority, and were not allowed to remove junior officers from their quarters. At other times, we have seen officers removed from their quarters for no other reason than to gratify the wishes of other officers: this is frequently done, and that too, under circumstances which justify the belief, that the motive which influenced the removal could not be avowed without exciting the deepest feeling of indignation. We could desire to see this matter better ordered. We would know and feel that our military laws and regulations are received as a rule of action, of binding force and obligation with all, from the highest to the lowest grade.

CHESTER.

BATTLE OF LÜTZEN.

From the "Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Krieges,

or

"HISTORY OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR" OF SCHILLER.

Translated for the Military and Naval Magazine.

The high road, leading from Weissenfels towards Leipzig, is intersected between Lützen and Markranstädt, by the wet ditch which reaches from Zeitz to Merseburg, and connects the Elster with the Saal. Upon this canal rested the left wing of the Imperial, and the right wing of the Swedish, army; the cavalry of both sides extending itself beyond it. Northward, behind Lützen, Wallenstein established his right wing, and south of this small town was posted the Swedish left. Both armies had the high road in their front, which, passing between them, separated

their orders of battle. The evening before the battle, Wallenstein, to the great disadvantage of his antagonist, had seized this road; the ditches, running along the sides of which, he deepened and garnished with musketeers; thus rendering any attempt to cross it difficult and dangerous. Immediately behind it were ranged seven pieces of heavy ordnance to support the fire from the ditches; and around the windmills, on a height close behind Lützen, fourteen light field pieces were placed in battery, which commanded a large portion of the plain. The infantry, divided into five large brigades, assumed the order of battle at the distance of three hundred paces from the road, and the cavalry covered the flanks. All the baggage wagons were sent forward towards Leipzig, that they might not encumber the movements of the army. In order to conceal the numerical weakness of force until Pappenheim's troops should arrive, the camp boys and servants were mounted on horses, and posted with the left wing. This disposition was effected in the obscurity of night, and before the day dawned, every thing was ready for the reception of the enemy.

On the same evening, Gustavus Adolphus appeared on the opposite side of the plain, and marshalled his troops for the combat. His order of battle was the same as that by which he had conquered at Leipzig the year previous. Small squadrons of horse were spread through the infantry, and sharp-shooters were distributed here and there among the cavalry. The whole army was formed in two lines; on its right and in rear, was the wet ditch; in front, was the high road; and the town of Lützen was on its left. The infantry under Count Brohe's command occupied the centre, the cavalry was upon the wings, and the artillery was advanced to the front. The command of the Saxon cavalry of the left wing was given to a German hero, the Duke Bernard of Weimar; while the King himself led his own Swedes of the right wing. The second line was arranged in a like manner, and behind it was posted a reserve-corps under Henderson, a Scottish commander.

Thus prepared, they awaited a bloody dawn to commence a struggle, rendered more memorable by long expectancy than by its possible consequences; more fearful by the character of the troops, than by their number. The feverish sympathies of Europe, which had been disappointed before Nürnberg, were to be calmed upon the field of Lützen. Two such generals, so equal in respectability, fame and capacity, had never before during the war, measured their strength in open battle; so high an emulation had never yet kindled heroism; so mighty a reward had never inspirited hope. On the following morning, the most warlike princes of Europe were to learn a new lesson, and the conqueror was to succumb to him that never was conquered. It was to be demonstrated beyond all doubt, whether at Lech-

strom and Leipzig, the genius of Gustavus Adolphus, or the unskilfulness of his antagonist, determined the fortune of the day. On the morrow, the merit of Friedland was to justify the choice of the Emperor, and the greatness of the man was to outweigh the price at which he had been purchased. Every soldier in the army jealously shared the fame of his leader; and under every one's armour, swelled the same feelings that animated the bosom of their general. The result was doubtful; but there could be no doubt as to the hardship and blood it would cost the victors and the vanquished. Each side knew its enemy perfectly, and irrepressible anxiety gave ample evidence of their mutual determination.

At last the fearful morning appeared; but an impenetrable mist, which rested upon the field of battle, delayed the attack till mid-day. The King, kneeling in front of his lines, performed his devotions; at the same time his army, in a kneeling posture, thundered forth a moving hymn, and the martial music swelled the song. The King then mounted his horse, and protected only by a leather waistcoat and a cloth coat, (a wound he had formerly received prevented his wearing armour,) he rode along the ranks, to inspire his troop with that confidence which was denied to his own breast. "*God is with us*," was the battle-word of the Swedes,—and "*Jesus Maria*," that of the Imperialists. Towards eleven o'clock, the mist rolling away disclosed glimpses of the enemy, and of the town of Lützen in flames: the town had been fired by order of the Duke, that he might not be outflanked in that direction. The onset was now sounded, the cavalry sprang forward upon the enemy, and the infantry advanced towards the ditches.

Received by a murderous fire from the musketeers and the heavy artillery planted behind the ditches, these brave battalions pressed onward to the attack with undaunted courage; the musketeers are forced to retreat from their posts; the ditches are passed, the battery itself is carried and turned against the enemy. Moving onward in their irresistible course, they overthrew the first of the five Friedlandish brigades, soon after that the second, and the third was on the point of being put to the rout, when the sudden appearance of the Duke opposed their further progress. With the quickness of lightning he composed their disorder, and his word of command arrested their flight. Supported by three regiments of cavalry, the beaten brigades made a new front against the enemy, and penetrated his broken ranks. A frightful struggle now began; the close contact of the enemy left no room for the use of fire-arms, the fury of the conflict no time for loading their firelocks. They fought man to man, the useless musket gave place to the sword and pike, and science to exasperation. The wearied Swedes, overpowered by numbers, retreated over the ditches, losing

the battery they had just taken. A thousand mutilated corpses already cover the field, and not a foot of ground is won.

In the mean time, the Swedish right wing led on by the King, had assailed the enemy's left. The irresistible charge of the heavy Friedlandish cuirassiers had already dispersed the light mounted Poles and Croats, who were posted on this wing, and their disordered flight drew with it the rest of the cavalry in frightful confusion. At this moment the King learned that his infantry had retreated back over the ditch, and that his left wing, annoyed by a murderous fire from the artillery at the windmill, was giving ground. He instantly instructed General Horn to complete the rout of the beaten wing of the enemy, and hastened at the head of the Stenbock Regiment to restore order to his left flank.

His noble horse cleared the ditch by a leap; but the accompanying squadrons found the passage of the ditch so difficult, that only a few horsemen, among whom was Francis Albert, Duke of Saxe-Lauenburg, were sufficiently expert to keep at his side. He sprang towards that part where his infantry was most dangerously situated; and in looking for some assailable point, where he might direct an attack, his vision being short, brought him quite near the enemy. A lance-corporal, of the Imperial army, had observed that every one respectfully made way for the officer who had first passed the ditch, and ordered a musketeer to fire upon him; the shot wounded the King in the left arm. At this moment his squadrons came up, and a confused cry of "the King bleeds—the King is shot"—spread horror among them. "I am not wounded,—follow me," he exclaimed, collecting his whole force; but overcome by pain, and powerless, he soon after requested the Duke of Saxe-Lauenburg to remove him quietly from the throng. As they were going towards the right wing by a circuitous rout, in order that his discouraged infantry might be spared the painful sight, the King received a second ball in his back, which deprived him of his little remaining strength. "All is over with me, brother!" said he with a dying voice, "save now your own life." He immediately fell from his horse, pierced by many more balls, and expired among the Croats. His flying horse, with the saddle unoccupied, soon apprized the Swedish cavalry of their King's fall. Burning with rage, they pressed forward to snatch from the eager enemy his precious booty. A murderous struggle ensued around his body, and the disfigured corpse was buried under heaps of the slain.

In a short time, the whole Swedish army participated in this post of danger; but instead of subduing the courage of this fearless host, it only kindled it the more to a new, wild, and consuming fire. Life has no longer any value to them, since the most cherished one of all is extinct; death has no terrors

for the humble soldier, since a crowned head is not spared.—With the fury of lions, the Uplandish, Smalandish, Finish, East and West Gothish, regiments, precipitate themselves for the second time upon the enemy's left, which opposes a feeble resistance to the previous attack of Gen. Horn, and is entirely beaten from the field. The Duke Bernard of Weimar, in his own person, offers an able substitute for the fallen chief of the destitute Swedes; and the spirit of Gustavus Adolphus still leads on his victorious troops. The Swedish left is speedily formed again, and charges the Imperial right wing. The artillery at the windmill, which had thrown such a murderous fire through the Swedish ranks, falls into their hands, and its thunder rolls towards the enemy.

The centre of the Swedish fort, conducted by Bernard and Kniephausen, again charge over the ditches, and again the battery of seven pieces is carried. The charge upon the heavy armed battalions of the enemy's centre, is now renewed with redoubled fury; their resistance becomes weak, and accident conspires with Swedish bravery to crush them. Their ammunition wagons take fire, and amidst fearful explosions, their grenades and shells are thrown into the air. The enemy in the greatest consternation, thinks his rear is attacked, while the Swedes assail him in front. His left wing is beaten, his right on the point of giving way, and his artillery is in the hands of the enemy. The battle is near its conclusion, the fortune of the day hangs on a single moment—when Pappenheim appears on the field of battle with his cuirassiers and dragoons, all advantages are cancelled, and a new battle begins.

The order which commanded this General to march upon Lützen, had reached him at Halle, while his troops were plundering that town. It was impossible for this warrior to collect his dispersed troops with the rapidity his impatience prompted, and which his orders enjoined upon him. Without waiting for his whole force, he placed himself at the head of eight regiments, and hastened at the top of his speed to take part in the contest. He arrived in season to witness the flight of the Imperial left, and was partially involved in their discomfiture. But with rapid presence of mind he collects these flying troops, and leads them again upon the enemy. Hurried onward by his wild impetuosity, and full of impatience to encounter the King whom he suspects to be with this wing, he makes a furious charge upon the Swedes, who, weary with conquering, and diminished in numerical force, after long and nobly maintaining their ground, at length yield to this flood of enemies. Pappenheim's unexpected appearance revived the drooping courage of the Imperial infantry, and the Duke of Friedland seized the decisive moment to form a new order of battle. The dense Swedish battalions after a frightful struggle, are again driven

back over the ditches, and the battery again changes hands.—The entire *yellow* regiment, which had given the most convincing proofs of its heroic devotion on that bloody day, lay dead around, covering the ground in the same fine order with which they had so gallantly maintained it when living. A like fate befel a *blue* regiment, which Count Piccolomini with the Imperial cavalry overthrew after a most desperate struggle. Seven different times this intrepid General repeated the charge, seven horses were killed under him, six musket balls struck his body: still he did not desert the field of battle until the retreat of the whole army drew him along with it. The Duke himself was seen coolly to ride through his ranks amidst a shower of balls, encouraging the hard-pressed with promises of reinforcements, the brave by his approbation, and the desponding by his piercing glance. His attendants near him fell dead around, and his cloak is riddled with many bullets. His life is this time spared to him; and upon the bed where Gustavus Adolphus breathed his last, Wallenstein was not destined to terminate a life stained with crimes.

Pappenheim, the Telamon of the army, the most formidable soldier of the House of Austria and of the Church, was not so fortunate. An ardent desire to engage the King in single combat, carried him headlong into the thickest of the contest, where he hoped to find him. Gustavus himself had cherished an earnest wish to meet this redoubtable combatant face to face; but his longing was not satisfied, and death first brought the reconciled heroes together. Two bullets entered Pappenheim's breast, and with difficulty his attendants withdrew him from the combat. While they were bearing him to the rear, a confused murmur saluted his ears, that the one he sought lay dead on the field; when the truth of this report was confirmed to him, his countenance brightened, and the last fire flashed from his eyes. "'Thus, then, is the Duke of Friedland brought low,'" said he; "but I surrender my life cheerfully, since I know that the implacable enemy of my faith has fallen on the same day with me."

With the fall of Pappenheim the success of the Imperialists vanished from the field. The cavalry of the left wing no sooner missed their victorious leader, than they gave up all for lost, and in despair took to flight. The right wing was seized with a like consternation, with the exception of a few regiments, which their brave commanders Götz, Terzky, Kolloredo, and Piccolomini compelled to stand firm. The Swedish infantry, with quick resolution, turned to account the dismay of the enemy. In order to repair the chasms which death has made in their first line, the two lines are formed into one, which hazards a last decisive struggle; a third time they rush over the ditches, and a third time the battery planted behind them is

taken. The sun sinks beneath the horizon as both orders of battle clash against each other. The combat thickens, and the expiring throes of manly strength are desperate; ingenuity and rage do their uttermost to make good the lost day: every man surpasses himself; no one thinks of conquering, no one of yielding; the wonders of tactics are exhausted, only to bring into play new and untried master-strokes of the science of war. At last, night and thick fogs come on, the struggle abates only because the soldier can no longer see his enemy. The soul-stirring trumpets sound a last blast; with silent, sullen consent, the fragments of both armies separate and leave the field, each declaring itself unconquered. * * * * *

Of both armies above nine thousand men lay dead on the field of battle; the number of wounded was much greater, and scarcely a man of the Imperialists escaped unhurt. The whole plain, from Lützen to the wet ditch, was covered with the wounded, dead, and dying.

J. L. L.

Note.—The thirty years' war, commencing in 1618 and terminating in 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, was a religious and political war; arising out of the conflicting interests of the Catholic League and Protestant or Evangelical Union. At the commencement of the war, Ferdinand II. Emperor of Austria, was the champion of the Catholics, Gustavus Adolphus of the Protestants. Cardinal Richelieu, who governed the councils of Louis XIII. of France, espoused the Protestant cause, in order to humble the power of Austria. Philip IX. had just ascended the throne of Spain, and James I. had occupied that of England since 1603. This period is remarkable for astonishing progress in the science, and improvements in the arms and munitions, of war; for the most vindictive and bloody battles, and for the truly chivalrous bearing, and devoted heroism, of the numerous great commanders, who were rocked in the cradle and nursed amidst the terrors of those exciting times. Gustavus Adolphus, whether in the field of battle, in the council, or in domestic life, stands forth from among the noble and intrepid spirits of that age, as the greatest and best. His ally, the Duke Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, who was the master of Turenne in the science of war, was one of the generals formed under him. At the battle of Lützen, the number of Imperial troops engaged, was 40,000; the Swedish troops, including the Saxons under Bernard, Duke of Saxe-Weimar, amounted to 27,000. The account of the battle, as given by Schiller, is not sufficiently descriptive to please the military man; it contains few of the technicalities which are so full of meaning and illustration, and which are essentially necessary in military writing. As a specimen of that style which quickens and impels the reader, the original is almost inimitable; and no translation can convey its force and beauty. *Tr.*

MILITIA OF THE UNITED STATES.

In our April number we inserted the Report of the Board of Officers convened in Washington, in Nov. 1826, to take into consideration the state of the Militia.

Previous to the convocation of that Board, sundry communications had been directed to the War Department, at the request of the Secretary, by several distinguished individuals, residing in different sections of country, submitting their views upon this important subject, and urging upon Government the necessity of adopting some means to improve the Militia system, and to secure to the country the services of this efficient arm of our national defence.

Among the numerous papers thus collected and laid before the Board, was one, presented by Gen. WILLIAM H. SUMNER, Adjutant General of the Militia of the State of Massachusetts—a gentleman eminently qualified by his official station, general intelligence and attainments, to do justice to any subject to which his inclination might lead him to devote his attention.

The masterly manner in which the subject is treated by Gen. S. must secure for him the thanks and gratulations of every friend to a well-regulated Militia:—and should Congress deem the matter of sufficient importance to claim their early attention, we feel assured that body will find in this document much valuable information to facilitate any measures they may propose for the preservation and improvement of the Militia system.

Deprecating, as we most sincerely do, the attempts which have been heretofore made, and are still making, in some parts of the Union, to create prejudice against the system generally, by resorting to ridicule and other means, we conceive that we cannot do the institution a better service, than by placing before our readers the paper above referred to; and with this view we insert a part of it in this number, and will, if possible, give the remainder in the next.

The forces of the United States consist of three distinct bodies, the Army, the Navy, and the Militia. These should be so organized and arranged, as to co-operate harmoniously and effectually, in all times of emergency, for the promotion of the public security. To this end, the relation in which each stands to the others, should be distinctly marked, and the rank of the several corps, and authority of the officers, in the various combinations which may exist, accurately defined. This would be productive of that good feeling and concert among them which is essential to give the greatest effect to the strength exerted. It would also tend to the introduction of that just subordination among the officers, to the want of which, some of the principal disasters to the American arms during the last war may be fairly attributed. The recollection of these points out the necessity of providing against their recurrence; and, united

with other considerations, leads to an inquiry into the mode by which the national strength can in future be exerted so as to produce a moral certainty of its accomplishing the designs of the Government.

It is not in my view, in the pursuit of this inquiry, nor do I conceive it to be necessary to the attainment of its end, to suggest any alterations in the system of Government already adopted for the regulation of the Army or Navy. Since their establishment, the melioration of both these arms of defence has been constant, and they may now be considered to be in as good a condition as the resources of the country, and the sentiments of the people respecting them, will permit. Yet, their connexion with the Militia, which the just jealousy of a Republican Government will teach it to rely upon as the principal means of defence, authorizes the remark, that it is but a few years since public opinion, upon the utility of maintaining either an Army or a Navy in a time of peace, was greatly divided. There is now a perfect union of sentiment in their favor. If, from a demonstration of their utility in war, the necessity of improving their condition in a time of peace, was made apparent, ought we not to inquire whether our experience does not point out the necessity of making such improvements in the condition of the Militia, as will enable the public to calculate with more certainty upon the result of its efforts? While it is admitted that some of the brightest gems have been set in the crown of our national glory by the Militia, and that, when its forces were well directed, both in the war of the Revolution, and the national war, its achievements were the wonder of nations, yet, it must be confessed, and the attempt to conceal it would be the reverse of patriotism, that often, too often, have its defeats subjected the country to much loss, and the people to severe calamities. If this is attributable to the want of intelligence and military skill among the officers, of discipline among the privates; or has arisen from the inadequacy of the provisions which are made for their regulation, government, and instruction, a remedy should be sought for and applied.

The Militia of the United States, as a body, is probably superior to that of other Powers: But, that it is not what the theory of the institution intended; nor, what the important reliance placed upon it requires it should be; nor, what the general intelligence of the people of which it is composed, ought to make it; is equally true. The militia of some countries is composed of ignorant peasants, who, from their circumscribed limits of association, seldom understand the application of any utensil but to the objects of their daily industry; or of uneducated artisans, who are learnt one trade, or a branch of it, only —and who, consequently, are ignorant of the design of all instruments, but those which belong to their own art. Having

no knowledge of the use of fire-arms, they probably would have more apprehension from them in their own hands, than in their enemies'. They have no idea of the order of military organization, nor of the safety derived from that confidence in others, which all feel who know the mutual dependence of an Army. Such are never brought into service as a militia, in the American sense of the term, to act, of themselves, and by themselves; to rally, fight, disperse, and form again, to harass and annoy the invading foe. They have not the capacity and pre-requisite information to enable them to do it. Thousands of such would make no militia; they would be a mere throng, acting without concert or combination, and doing more injury to them they were called to protect, than to those they are assembled to oppose. These make good recruits for an army, or, what is the same thing in discipline, for the incorporated militia, as they are brought up in those habits of subserviency which make them ready proficients in acquiring the whole duty of a soldier as comprised in the single word obedience. It is true, they may besides learn to suffer, but their officers will teach them how to act. Individual intelligence and sagacity is of comparatively but little importance to a soldier in the regular forces. In an Army, the extent of the departments of science and skill are proportionate to its strength and objects. Every department has its own organization, and is responsible for its own acts. The whole body is dependent on each, and the failure of one produces the overthrow of the rest. The Army has its engineers and pontoniers, its pioneers and artificers, its armorers and gunners; all assigned to their distinct duties; every thing in it is conducted according to methodical arrangement. The soldier exercises no volition, and skill is not required of him. Not so the militia man. In America, he belongs to a class of society, which, if it ever engages in war, does it for the defence of its possessions; and not to that which resorts to its occupations for its daily sustenance. Recruits for the regular service are seldom procured among the best citizens of the community. The militia is what is left after society is purified by army enlistments. In the militia-man, knowledge is pre-supposed. In him, quickness of apprehension, sagacity in discovery, enterprise in undertaking, cunning in means, and perseverance in execution, are common qualities. The degree of information acquired at schools, and the habits of instruction and practice in the mechanical arts, have extended the inquiries of our youth to many objects which, in Europe, would be confined to one. Here, the apprentice is not taught to do only one thing; his instruction is not confined to one trade, the use of one instrument, the making of a part of a machine, or the combining of those which are made by others. Hitherto, the cheapness of land, and the lightness of the taxes,

as a principal cause, has prevented that advancement in the arts, which confines the attention of men to a single object: consequently, not only one, but the whole of the parts of a common weapon, utensil, or machine, are made and put together by one person, and he also manufactures others, equally well; and, after they are completed, is perhaps as skilful in their use as the mechanic or handicraftsman for whom they were designed. The fertility of the soil has, at the same time, made such a confluence of unprovided population in the new settlements, that wants are accumulated beyond means. Hence, hardships are sustained, risks are encountered, and fatigues endured, which give strength, activity, and fortitude; invention is stimulated, and means are adopted which nothing but the wit of necessity could devise. The militia man thus learns to do every thing for himself; and, in doing it, so far from discovering any mortification at the necessity which requires it, draws pride and satisfaction in feeling that degree of independence which arises from the discovery of the ability he possesses, so far to provide every thing for himself, as not to depend for any thing on others. The sagacity which our yeomanry who compose the great body of the militia, are thus obliged continually to exercise, in the discovery of expedients, and the necessity the mechanics are under of making and combining all the parts of a machine, and putting it in motion, naturally puts the mind of the agent upon the inquiry how the same result can be accomplished by fewer processes. In this, such ability has been discovered, as has attained for the Americans great celebrity for their inventive powers. It is by the stretch of this faculty, united with the habit of self-dependence, that the militia man is enabled to provide substitutes for every thing which is wanting and necessary. He thus has the means of moving and acting, when others would suffer or be at rest. Understanding the application of the common mechanic arts to the useful purposes of life, he is able to make roads and bridges without pioneers or engineers. He will make boats and rafts without pontoniers. He will repair his own fire-arms without the aid of an armorer, and a gun-carriage without a wheelwright. He understands all the means of transportation and supply. In the forest, where he cannot shew his skill in foraging, he will hunt for his food, or obtain it by fishing in the streams. He understands the management of a boat, either by rowing or sailing, and for the want of one, can swim. He can ride and manage a horse, and repair his harness and equipage. He uses the axe, the saw, and the hammer, with as much ease as the mattock and spade; and the lever and the screw are in daily use. The weapons of war he is as familiar with as the utensils of husbandry. Muskets and rifles are in every house, and he is practised in their use, either as a hunt-

er in the forest, in his sports, or militia exercises. The general diffusion of education has given him even higher advantages. He can read, write, and compute, and, in every thing he undertakes, feels that pride of exertion which nothing but the fullest confidence in the importance of his own services could give.

To the general and local knowledge, mental sagacity, and physical strength which the people possess, the moral character must be added as more important than either. The effect of liberal systems of instruction, and that freedom of action which freedom of thought produces, has inspired the American People with a moral feeling and conduct, which, added to their other distinguishing qualities, enables them to furnish a better material for an efficient militia than is elsewhere possessed. Their habits of self-restraint teach them not to want what they have it not in their own power to procure. But though a patient, they are a spirited and enterprising people, and will incur any risk for a desirable object. They are a free people, who justly think their own condition better than that of any other; a proud people, "alive to honor, and sensitive to disgrace;" a considerate people, who act more from judgment than from impulse; an educated people, who understand how much they have at stake; an intelligent people, who know how to prize it; a skilful people, who can devise the means of their own security; and a brave and patriotic people, who will hazard and suffer every thing in support of it. Such a people, content with the victory, without aiming at the glory of it, if their energies are well directed, will constitute a most harassing power to an enemy on his approach, and a destructive and appalling one to him on his retreat: they are never at rest themselves, nor will they often permit their enemy to enjoy the quiet of a camp. It is true, many of these qualities are often displayed by the soldiers and inhabitants of other countries, though the combination of them, by the force of education and habit here known, is believed to be rare. In the American militia, patriotic and personal motives are united; it therefore possesses not only the entire confidence of the Government in its moral character, but the objects of its employment are interesting to the persons engaged. Our republican institutions are mainly dependent upon it for their preservation and permanency. The sentiments, feelings, and prejudices, of the nation are strong in its favor, and, in many places, all the stimulants of ambition, and the incitements of pride, are afforded to its officers and soldiers; and all the objects which are dear to freemen ensure their reward. Nevertheless, it is a lamentable truth, that none but abortive attempts have been made for its better adaptation to the purposes either of its original design, or its application to those multiplied uses which

have arisen from the vast extension of the national domain, constant addition to the number of States in the Union, and the increasing elevation of this empire in the scale of nations. The value of the institution is admitted, and its defects acknowledged; but, as no remedy is provided, its efforts, in too great a degree, continue to be left to chance. The best of our citizens are subjected to the exposure of their lives; widows and children mourn the needless loss of their husbands and parents; misery and distress are brought upon families by the destruction of the lives of those who are engaged; all feel the consequences of its disasters; and yet, from the comparative inferiority of the militia, how few consider the country disgraced by its overthrow in the conflicts in which it has been engaged!

How long shall this state of things be permitted to continue? Our Government and laws, generally speaking, keep pace with the advance of knowledge and the progress of society; but the militia, this vast engine of power, has remained unimproved ever since the first law was passed, shortly after the adoption of the Constitution, providing for its simple organization.

Reflection teaches, that, while the National Government has so long been inactive upon this subject, the causes of superiority of the militia in some States, over others, are principally to be traced to the encouragement which their several Legislatures, by a wise use of their reserved constitutional powers, and those which are granted to them by Congress, have afforded it. The capacity for improvement, which is thus exhibited, the limited authority of the State Governments, and the long continued neglect, by several of them, of the means they possess for advancing the attainments of the militia, shows the necessity of the exercise of all the powers with which the National Government is invested, to produce that equality in its condition among the several States which its national importance demands.

The subject, as a national one, is no doubt attended with great constitutional and practical embarrassments. These do not, however, lessen its national importance; but, on the contrary, shew the necessity of great deliberation in its investigation. In the progress of our enquiries, if we find that the local habits and interests of the different sections of the country are a principal source of difficulty; if we find, among the slave holding States, the preservation of the public security depends upon the embodying of almost the whole efficient white population, while, in others, the absence of this cause would render such a measure burdensome; if we find that in such of the old States as have a dense population, the frequent assembling of the train bands for drill and instruction might be easily accomplished, and in the new, where the inhabitants are sparse, these frequent trainings would be oppressive; we may possibly dis-

cover some mode of remedying these difficulties, or learn to content ourselves with the reflection, that, on the Atlantic frontier, where the country is cleared, and the troops will be called to act in large bodies, a higher degree of attainment in military science, and a better knowledge of tactics, will be necessary for protection against invasion, than in the less cultivated parts, where the defiles are numerous, and the country itself furnishes means for the successful operation of those who have a knowledge of its passes, and have gained, by their daily use of the rifle, the best qualifications of a militia force. Our investigations may lead us to the discovery of a mode of keeping up the organization, the officering, the arming and returns of the militia, giving to all, according to the kind of service which will probably be required of them, such opportunities of association and exercise as are indispensable to excite the ambition of the officers, and to stimulate the pride of the soldiers, without making the duty burdensome. Even on this point we may come to the conclusion, that, although, at the formation of the Constitution, when containing about three millions white inhabitants, it was necessary, for the protection of the country, to provide for the enrolment of all able bodied white male persons between eighteen and forty-five years of age, embracing almost the whole of its efficient white population; the vast increase of our numerical strength; the general distribution of arms, and the accession of other means of defence, through the establishment of an Army and Navy, and of a regular system of fortifications, will now permit us to reduce the extent of the militia burdens, by including the train bands within less comprehensive numbers. At least, having ascertained the true causes of the embarrassments, and the obstacles to improvement which local habits and necessities now present, it is apprehended the difficulty of forming general laws suited to the situation and condition of the people in the different sections of the Union, or to the wants of the country itself, will be diminished. The grand object is, to bring the militia into that condition which is best suited to the preservation of individual and State rights at all times, and to the increase of the national security, when it shall be called into the national service. Yet who, after the many projects which have been brought forward without success, can tell how this is to be accomplished? Experience alone must direct us. That of thirty years has already shewn the great embarrassments with which the subject is attended. No time should, therefore, be lost in commencing its investigation: for it cannot be disguised, that, with the increase of the causes demanding improvement in the condition of the militia, the difficulties of accomplishing it accumulate.

How then shall this investigation be commenced? or rather,

what is the most expedient mode for the Government to adopt to obtain the facts needed to enable it to act with that degree of intelligence on this, which it discovers on other subjects of national concern? It is answered, that reflection upon the limited constitutional power over the militia possessed by the States, and the consequent extent of the authority of Congress respecting it, leave no doubt that the reform must be commenced by the National Government. Let that Government then inquire whether it possesses the beneficial sources of information on this, that it does on other concerns of national regard, and whether the several States, even, are not furnished with superior advantages to it on this. In doing so, if it shall discover, that it is rather to the State than to the United States laws, that the diversity in the character of the militia of the several parts of the country is to be attributed, and that to the proper organization of an Adjutant General's Department in some of them, the superiority of their militia is in a great degree to be attributed, it will naturally extend the inquiry, and ask whether the adoption of the same means would not be attended with advantages to itself, equal to those which the States alone now possess?

In the States referred to, the Adjutant General is the head of the Commander in Chief's Staff; through him all his orders are communicated; by him all his detailed information is collected; to him appeals are constantly made by the officers for a construction of the laws and orders, for information respecting the exercise of their powers, and for opinions upon questions of rank, authority, and duty. By these officers, all blank forms are prepared and instructions for making them given. By them registers of the officers in commission and rosters of those on duty are kept. The orders for holding General Courts Martial, Courts of Inquiry, and Boards of Officers, are prepared by them, and their proceedings examined and submitted to the Commander in Chief for his approval. All commissions are made out, resignations received, and, when accepted, regular discharges of officers from their authority are issued by them. They have regular files of all returns, petitions, memorials, remonstrances, and papers, received at their offices, and record all their orders, letters, and opinions. They collect the information necessary to enable the Government to act understandingly on subjects connected with the organization of the militia and its arrangement into corps. They report the officers for neglect of duty, when their returns are not punctually and accurately made; condense and make abstracts of these, and annually submit them to the Commander in Chief, by whom they are usually communicated to the Legislature. Several of the States have derived the benefit of this arrangement for many years, while in others the perceptible improvement in the con-

dition of their militia, from its more recent adoption, confirms its utility. In fact, omitting numerous other details, so important are the duties of these officers, where their Departments are properly regulated, it appears impossible, that a proper organization, even of the militia, could be maintained without them, much less, that its concerns should be managed with order, harmony, and correctness.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CLIMATE

of

THE SOUTH WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

The southern part of the American continent being nearly at right angles with the equator, stretches south to the 56° of S.L. and presents the countries on the eastern and western sides of its elevated range of mountains to the South Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Such regularity of outline, and similarity of position, would lead us to expect great resemblance and uniformity of climate on both sides of the Andes. But it is not the case. The eastern has the usual tropical character, until we reach to the 35° S. L. Thence to Cape Horn, it has been considered rather colder than corresponding degrees of N. L. The countries on the west or Pacific side, are conspicuous for evenness of climate, and freedom from violent or sudden alternations. The most highly favored are Chili and Peru, and it is to them our observations are principally confined. Their happy situation, moderate temperature, exemption from storms, and fertility of soil, have been celebrated from the earliest period of European visits. The most extravagant language was held on their mineral wealth, and powers of production. The vegetable kingdom was represented as extending its varieties and abundance far beyond its displays in olden countries; and the benignity of climate was supposed to give animal life its happiest development, and most vigorous exercise of power. Their salubrity was described in the same glowing language; disease seldom disturbed the enjoyments of its favored inhabitants, and death only came when it was desirable, to relieve the exhaustion of extreme age.*

While colonies of Spain, few opportunities occurred to test the truth of these narratives of early and enthusiastic navigators: but a free intercourse, since their independence, has

* *Vide* Molina.

proved, that much of it existed only in the imagination. Disappointment and ruin have dissipated a great deal of the delusion which enterprising foreigners have entertained, in regard to their mineral riches; and a few years more will furnish juster ideas of the salubrity of the climate, and its influence on the constitutions of strangers. The following remarks are more particularly in relation to this point, and although derived from a view of the sea coast, they may be considered as applicable to the whole country, owing to its peculiar position.

The ocean, receding from the Andean chain, has left a narrow strip of territory of variable breadth, running from the 3° to the 23° of S. latitude. This constitutes lower or maritime Peru. As the mountains proceed south, they divide into parallel ranges, with intervals that form beautiful and highly fertile valleys. These ranges diminish in height as they spread, sloping occasionally into table land, sinking suddenly into deep valleys, or stopping some distance from the sea, leave regions of sand of irreclaimable sterility. Such is the general aspect of Chili, one of the most salubrious portions of South America.—Its features are strongly marked and highly picturesque. The summits of the Cordilleras are in the region of uniform winter, and are covered with snow, while the valleys at their base are smiling in perpetual spring. These mountains are immense chains of rocky masses, destitute of soil or vegetation. Their uncovered sides reflecting the sun's rays in the summer, render the heat intense at their feet; but it is mitigated in plains by currents of cool air sweeping down from the colder regions above. The valleys have a soil of rich black loam, capable of the highest degree of production, whenever there is adequate irrigation. In many parts, they resemble the bottom of lakes, the waters of which have been drawn off, after depositing a deep stratum of vegetable mould. The immediate coast region from the borders of Peru to 36° S. is broken and mountainous, destitute of forest growth, and uncultivable, except in narrow strips of valleys, between the breaks of the mountains. The sedimentary structure of the superficial rocks, consisting mostly of reddish clay and sand stone, with interposing strata of conglomerates and shell beds, indicate that it has been left by the retiring ocean. In the northern district, there is an extensive sand desert, between the mountains and ocean. The few streams that cross this region dry up in the summer, and the moisture from the sea air is quickly absorbed, and its saline particles are deposited in large masses along the coast.

There are no large navigable rivers in Chili, no extensive marshes or wet land. The streams descend from the mountains with swollen and rapid currents, while the snows are melting, and in the rainy seasons; but dwindle into shallow brooks, or disappear, during the heats of the warm months.—

Wherever there is sufficient moisture, vegetation is abundant. Every kind of grain is highly productive. The fruits and vegetables embrace nearly all the tropical varieties, and constitute a principal portion of the food of the people.

The seasons of Chili, as those of intertropical climates, are divided into rainy and dry; the difference of temperature not being sufficient to give them the distinction of winter and summer.

Ice is not known on the coast within the 32° of south latitude; but in the valleys, near the Cordilleras, it occasionally happens, if the weather has been severe in the mountains, that the temperature will fall below the freezing point at night. This dissimilarity to the corresponding region of the northern latitude, results from the nature of the soil, prevailing winds, and position of the country.

In the months of March, April and May, the atmosphere is preparing for the rainy season. Calms prevail, mists collect and settle along the coast, the south wind gives place to light breezes from the N.E., and the uniformly clear skies of summer are succeeded by dark, cloudy weather. A perceptible change takes place in the air; its density is diminished; and the harsh, dry feeling which makes it uncomfortable in the hot months, is replaced by a greater softness and elasticity. The temperature gradually falls to 67° or 68°, where it continues with little variation until the rains have fairly commenced.

The lowest we observed the barometer in those months, was 28 in. 86. It is sometimes found to oscillate a few tenths previous to a heavy norther. Storms of wind and rain commence generally about the middle of June, and are liable to occur until September. They have intervals of calm misty weather, and in some years there is not more than one severe rain through the winter. The rains have the tropical character, vehement and sudden; swelling the brooks into torrents, and inundating the valleys. These storms are preceded by a heavy swell of the sea breaking on the coast, and several days of cloudy weather. If there is any change in the barometer, it usually occurs previous to their onset; but there is no reliance to be placed upon it, as in some of the heaviest northers, it has given no indication of their vicinity or violence.

The average temperature of the rainy season is 62°; but the air gives the sensation of a much greater degree of cold. This is the period when the forces of nature are put into action. Vegetation starts in every direction from the barren looking soil. Herbage and flowers throw their vestment over the nakedness of the mountains, and the valleys pour out their abundance to the slightest invocation of industry. The rains cease in September, and the occurrence of even a shower, until the season of their regular return, is so rare, as to be a phenome-

non. There was a remarkable exception to this regularity, indelibly fixed in the memory of the inhabitants—at the conclusion of the severe earthquake in 1822. It rained powerfully in the height of the dry season. Its unlooked for appearance occasioned nearly as much alarm as the convulsion of the earth.

The spring months, from September to December, are delightful; the skies are cloudless, the temperature agreeable except at mid-day, and a cooling breeze, bringing the freshness of the ocean atmosphere, sets in regularly about ten in the morning, and continues until night. This wind is southerly, and sometimes blows fresh for two or three days, and then moderates into a gentle sea breeze. It is the polar current setting towards the equator, and it follows the line of the coast until deflected into the trades, freshening as the sun approaches the southern tropic.

The summer months, from December to March, are clear, warm, and dry. The sun's rays, poured perpendicularly upon the valleys, occasion an intense heat. The soil is baked, and the atmosphere deprived of moisture; vegetation is nearly destroyed, a languishing existence only is supported in some of the most fertile spots by artificial irrigation. The average temperature at Valparaiso is 81° F. Observations at any particular place, will not express correctly the general rate of temperature of the summer months, in consequence of the inequality of the country. In the valleys the sun, acting through a dry, cloudless atmosphere, causes an oppressive degree of heat; while at a short distance on the Cordilleras' steppes, a delightful freshness is preserved by currents of cool air sweeping down from the mountains.

The nights are exceedingly agreeable throughout the country. The sultriness of warm climates is scarcely ever observed. The air is dry but elastic, and keeps the surface of the body cool, by the rapidity with which it carries off the perspiration. It is customary with many of the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, without suffering from sudden transitions of temperature, so common in northern latitudes.

The climate of Chili is characterized by equable temperature, absence of sensible electrical phenomena, and extreme dryness for two thirds of the year—26° includes the annual range of the thermometer at Valparaiso. In the spring and summer, there is never any appearance of electrical vicissitude, except such interruption to the general order, as occurred in 1822, during the great earthquake. In the winter, lightning is seen in the mountains when sudden storms of wind and rain occur.

Dryness is the distinguishing feature of the climate. Even in the vicinity of the sea, the quantity of moisture in the atmosphere is incredibly small. The most polished iron instru-

ments may be exposed without corroding, and the deliquescent salts are scarcely acted upon. Evaporation is very rapid; vegetable and animal substances lose their humidity so quickly, that putrefaction is prevented under circumstances apparently every way favorable for it. The jerked beef of commerce is made by simple exposure, after the pieces are prepared by removing the fat, &c. The fibre hardens, gives up its moisture, and resists putrefaction longer than beef preserved by salt.

The effect of the climate on the native constitution is friendly. They are a hardy, healthy people; capable of undergoing great fatigue, and enjoying active powers to an advanced age. In middle and northern provinces the aborigines are about the usual stature, muscular and vigorous, but of rather slender make. They have the copper color, which marks the Indian throughout the continent, straight black hair, and scattered beard. The cheek bones are not prominent, and the face is rounder than in the Asiatic race. They have greater energy of character than their neighbors, the natives of Peru, fond of active amusements, spending much of their time in equestrian exercises, and are said to make excellent cavalry. The race which has sprung from the European mixture, possesses some excellent qualities. They are brave, generous, and hospitable, quickly excited, and fierce in the passions; but kindly disposed towards strangers, and highly courteous in their manners. They have accommodated themselves with great facility to the important changes which have followed their independence, and have derived more solid advantages from self-government, than other southern republics.

The inhabitants of Chili enjoy a considerable share of health, notwithstanding their vicinity to tropical regions. The absence of that luxuriant and constantly renewed vegetation, which furnishes an unfailing source of pernicious exhalations, renders it comparatively exempt from a destructive class of disease—the bilious remittent fever. There are no extensive marshes, or tracts of wet low-land, or jungles teeming with the lower orders of animal life, to vitiate the air; it is constantly renewed from the surface of the ocean, and is fresh and pure.

Chili is not, however, free from severe diseases. Inflammatory fevers, liver affections, and dysentery, prevail extensively in the summer and autumn. The heat of the climate renders the fevers ardent; and in some seasons, a severe form of inflammatory fever, with great determination to the head, is so common as to be epidemical. It is denominated chevolongo, or head disease, and is much dreaded by the natives. Strangers from colder climates are liable to acute inflammations from exposure to summer heats; that of the liver is very common; it is the foundation of most of the chronic complaints which afflict the natives. The strongest impression of the climate is on the

digestive organs. The powers of the stomach are impaired, and irritation is readily induced by impropriety of diet. Those forms of disease, with the usual nervous consequences, which arise from imperfect digestion, are nowhere more distressing.

Pulmonary diseases are rare; warm and equable temperature is highly beneficial in the chronic inflammations of these organs, and there is no country where an invalid, with certain forms of consumption, would find a safer retreat than in the valleys of Chili. The sea coast is not so favorable; persons who have a disposition to a hemorrhage from the lungs, with a dry cough, find the dry and evaporating power of the air too irritating, and their complaint very much increased. We have known several instances, where the disease ran its course with great rapidity, in persons coming from the humid and softer climates of Peru and Colombia.

The air in Chili has a peculiar effect on the skin, rendering it harsh and unperspirable. It is a common remark that the natives do not perspire, and the experience of the new comer verifies it after a short residence. The sanguineous temperaments do not perceive it so quickly, or to the same extent, as the melancholic and bilious habits. We have often observed robust and healthy men labouring under a thermometrical heat of 79° without forcing a free perspiration. The cause appears to be, the quickness with which the perspiration is carried off by a dry heated air, not allowing it to collect on the surface, and a diminution of the quantity secreted, from a loss of vigor in the vessels of the skin, long acted upon by high temperature. This has great influence on the health of strangers, who are accustomed to free perspiration. It originates many diseases, particularly bowel complaints and rheumatism, and in some constitutions, keeps up a constant irritation, not different from a moderate fever, until the system is accommodated, and its rate of health reduced to the standard of the climate. The habits and diet of colder countries are not suited to Chili. The Americans and English who go there, are compelled by experience to adopt the customs of the natives, to moderate the quantity of animal food, and avoid spirituous drinks, or suffer severely in health.

Peru has a remarkable position. The great chain of the Andes, running north and south, leave a narrow strip of country between their outer range and the Pacific ocean. It extends from the 4° to the 23° of S. latitude, and might be termed the shore of the Pacific. This constitutes the Valles or lower Peru, a region much celebrated for its climate and productions. It is separated from Chili by a sandy desert, and on the north from Colombia, by a region of luxuriant vegetation. Wherever mountain streams cross this strip, they form beautiful valleys, the centres of population and production. These valleys ex-

tend to the interior, and are gradually elevated, until lost in the mountains. Their soil is alluvial, and of extreme fertility. Every variety of tropical vegetation reaches the highest degree of perfection in them, and the most delicious fruits scarcely require cultivation.

Screened on the north and east by lofty mountains, and exposed to a wide extent of sea on the west, this happily situated country does not experience the extremes of heat or cold. The current of wind tending down the coast of Chili, continues to Peru, with the steadiness of a trade wind. It moderates the heat which otherwise would be oppressive, from its intertropical situation, and being charged with moisture, vegetation is supported under the scorching suns of summer. Vast quantities of salt are deposited from this wind along the coast, forming in some places, muriatiferous beds of several feet depth.

Throughout this whole region rain is so rare as to be a phenomenon. Storms are not known. The electrical equilibrium is seldom disturbed; thunder is not heard, and lightning seen only among the clouds of the distant mountains—an entirely different region.

This tranquility and exemption from rain extends some distance seaward; but on the opposite direction, among the Cordilleras, the seasons have their tropical character of vicissitude and violence. From a serene and unchangeable climate, the inhabitants of Lima have the storms and severities of winter in their view.

The temperature of lower Peru is moderate in comparison with that of countries in the same latitude. The fierceness of solar heat is mitigated during summer, by a thin, fleecy stratum of cloud suspended over it—nor has the atmosphere that transparency commonly observed in warm countries. The prevailing wind reaches it fresh and cooling from a large body of water, instead of bringing the heat of extensive tracts of land. In the winter, dense mists collect along the coast and gather around the skirts of the mountains; the sun disperses them for a few hours at mid-day, but his influence continues too short a time to affect the average temperature of those months.

The mean summer heat is 80°—that of winter 65°. But this by no means expresses the temperature as experienced by the sense. In no country have we found woollen clothing more agreeable or necessary than in Peru. Such is the impression of the air on the skin, that the sultriness and pungency of high temperature, so often felt in temperate climates, are never experienced in the warmest weather.

The most striking feature of the climate is the absence of rain, and of sensible electrical changes. We have seen that the position of the country is such that the aerial currents are regular, and its temperature not liable to fluctuation; so that

the climate, be what it might, rainy or dry, it would be uniform. The Atlantic trade wind is arrested by the Andes and the countries on its eastern side, and does not resume its course for some distance from the coast. This interval, which comprises Peru, would remain calm and stagnant, did not the cool and dense current from the extra tropical south west wind flow gently down towards the equator. Hence the laws which regulate it are fixed, and give it a steadiness equal to that of the trades. This south wind meets no opposing currents to disturb its electricity, nor an atmosphere of different temperature to cause a condensation of its vapor until it reaches the mountains. A fall of rain is occasioned by the commingling of airs of different temperature and electric charge; the vesicular vapor which they contain will not coalesce into drops, unless its heat and electrical condition are altered; and as this seldom occurs, on account of the uniformity of the south wind, we may understand why it does not rain in Peru. The exceptions which have occurred at different periods, seem to confirm this opinion. Dr. Unanue, a writer of distinction in Lima, gives an account of a cloud, attended with rain and lightning, which passed over the city in 1806; it came from the mountains, and was brought by a cool east wind, after a season of unusual calm and warm weather. The atmosphere of the valley had no doubt become heated and rarified to an extraordinary degree, and a vortex of denser air from the cooler and elevated regions of the Andes, rushed down to replace it.

The absence of sensible electrical changes may be explained on similar principles. It is known that a steady current of air opposes accumulation of electricity; the vicinity of a high and acuminated range of mountains, also serve as tractors to that which may be generated along the coast, and thus prevent the atmosphere in valleys from being charged; and there seldom being adverse currents in a different condition, the electrical vicissitudes are not manifested.

The force of evaporation is great in all seasons; but the aqueous vapor reaches its maximum elasticity in the summer months. It rises to the region parallel to the summits of the mountains, and there meeting an atmosphere of increased capacity and different temperature, a thin stratum of clouds is formed, which is not dispersed at the warmest periods. These clouds are very elevated, and diminish the intensity of a vertical sun, so as to render the summer much less oppressive than in other tropical situations. In the winter the aqueous vapor is accumulated at the base of the mountains in the day, and spread over the valleys at night in thick fogs, depositing a copious dew, which answers all the purposes of rain for the restoration of vegetation. The dew point rises, and a slight change of temperature is sufficient to cause an abundant pre-

cipitation. The amount of water deposited in this way is probably not far short of the quantity of rain that falls in temperate climates.

The views here entertained are strengthened from the entire alteration in the climate and seasons in the northern bounds of Peru, when the regular south wind of the coast ceases. After passing the 3° south latitude, a region of calms, sudden squalls, thunder storms, and rains which come like a deluge, afford a strong contrast to the quiet one just described, and but a few degrees farther south. At Guayaquil they have the usual intertropical seasons; the atmosphere is light and elastic, the heat great in the day, and the nights sultry and oppressive; the rains are heavy in the wet seasons, and storms of thunder and lightning are violent.

The Peruvian climate has another quality, not less remarkable when we regard its temperature and humidity, than its serenity. It is the anti-putrescent power of its atmosphere. Decomposition of animal and vegetable substance takes place so slowly that their texture is preserved for a long time. It is not uncommon to see the carcases of animals scarcely altered after weeks of exposure; their destruction is eventually effected by a process of pulverization, rather than putrefaction. It does not appear to arise from any deficiency of moisture withdrawn suddenly by dry air, as in Chili and the sandy deserts of Africa; for the surface may become mouldy from precipitation, while the internal parts of the substance is yielding the moisture of composition. There is a suspension, to a certain degree, of the chemical affinities. The absorption of oxygen, an essential circumstance in putrefaction, takes place imperfectly, and the union of hydrogen with the elements of the substance is retarded. It appears from recent experiments that electricity postpones putrefaction; and that animal fibre, rendered negative electric, repels rather than attracts oxygen. If this condition could be maintained, decomposition by this process would be avoided. It is more than probable that the atmosphere exerts some influence of this kind, otherwise the dissolution would be as rapid as in all other places where heat and moisture are as abundant.

(To be continued.)

In the May number of the Magazine we referred to two communications which had been offered for insertion, but "declined on the ground that the language (was) not considered respectful towards the constituted authorities of the country." One of these communications, divested of some of its objectionable features, has been since published in the New York American; the other, having been forwarded anonymously, was retained, and has not been called for by the author.

Willing, and indeed anxious, that our officers of the Army and Navy should be heard in self-defence, whenever they consider their rights, interests, or privileges invaded, we have reconsidered the two communications alluded to, and concluded to insert them in the Magazine, that others may judge whether we acted correctly in the first instance by rejecting them. The one signed "A Subscriber," was received first, and is now placed first in order.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

Presuming your periodical is open for remarks, I take the liberty of making a *few*, which I hope may receive a place in your next number.

THE ARMY.

Within the last twelve months, Congress, in order to give greater perfection to the formation of the Army, passed laws for the organization of two new corps—no doubt it was also expected by many of them, that officers, who had served long and *faithfully*, would have thus been benefitted; but what is the result? The Ordnance corps was formed by a Board of General Officers, and the Chief of the corps that was to be.—These officers, disregarding all military rule, selected such as were most *strenuously* advocated by political influence, and the great attachment of the *present Chief of the corps*; this is to be inferred only, as nothing has been revealed, for their sittings and proceedings are held secret. Yes, a Board of *officers* selecting *officers* for a new corps, and ashamed to let it be known why those of long service and high recommendations were rejected, and young graduates from the Military Academy preferred; but worse still than this; the 10th captain appointed, was the youngest Brevet in the whole Army, (and who had *twice resigned* his commission)—thus placing him from the bottom, *beyond* the top of the list of all lieutenants; or in other words, making him rank all subalterns in the Army.

Next comes the law for the Dragoons, thus far only *partially* officered; that, however, in a most *partial* manner—the Chief less than a year since a citizen, now a colonel, ranking of course all field officers below that grade;—how many lieutenant-colonels and majors, who have served twenty years, (and some longer) would gladly have joined this corps to receive promotion; but no, this officer, (a major only) of 8 or 9 months' service, must be preferred. What rule was made in appointing the officers is not known; but *it is known* that the fourth 1st lieutenant is the A.D.C. of the General in Chief, and son of the Vice President; and moreover was, when appointed, the eighth 2nd lieutenant in his regiment; it is well known, too, that every one appointed, has been taken from the Infantry, and not

one from the Artillery—how many captains and lieutenants would gladly have availed themselves of receiving advancement. Now, Mr. Editor, what inducement has an officer to exert himself to perform his duty with promptness and alacrity, when we see many who have not done any duty (comparatively speaking) getting all the preferences, simply because they have political friends to back them. The discipline of the Army will be brought to a low ebb indeed, if we are to be officered by those who are distinguished by the number and strength of their political friends.

Why, let me ask, is it that officers of the Navy receive such high premiums for recruiting seamen, and officers of the Army are allowed *nothing*? the responsibilities and trouble are the same; yet a captain of the Navy receives $4 per man, and the lieutenant $1 50 extra per day, while on this duty, and the Army officer gets nothing whatever; the law of the 2nd of March will have to be repealed in part; men will not enlist without bounty, and it is ungenerous (to say the least of it) to throw pecuniary responsibilities on an officer, without giving him some compensation.

A SUBSCRIBER.

FROM THE NEW YORK AMERICAN.

THE ARMY.

There were some remarks contained in the last (April) No. of the Military and Naval Magazine, on the organization of the Dragoon Corps, that were exceedingly just and well timed; but such is the apathy amongst the community at large in all that concerns the Army, and so coldly do those who should be its guardians regard its vital interests, that we poor soldiers almost despair of a re-establishment of those rights, considered until lately as sacredly guaranteed to us by our commissions, and by long usage of service—I mean the right of successive promotion, without an observance of which, the country may be assured that the high and chivalrous feeling, so peculiarly necessary to the soldier of our little Army, will be superseded by the sordid consideration of making the profession a mere matter of convenience, to be cast off whenever a more lucrative situation offers.

We all know how slow promotion is in times of peace, under every impartial and advantageous circumstance—scarcely to be borne, with all our patience, but for the consoling principle of never being overslaughed. Under the existence of this principle we did content ourselves, however, anxiously looking to the distant goal of our long cherished ambition; trusting

that in the imperfection of human nature, causes might arise when our fondest hopes would be realized; but there has come a chilling frost, not only to blast the expanding shoots of military glory in the subaltern, but ultimately to prostrate the principle itself throughout all ranks of our profession.

I have been led to offer these remarks by an examination of the annexed table, showing the rank of those officers selected for the Ordnance Corps, previous to their selection, and the rank they now have.

It will be recollected that this corps was created by an act of Congress in 1832, to consist of one Colonel, one Lt. Colonel, two Majors, and ten Captains. Here there was to be promotion; and not doubting but that the selection would be made with due regard to former rank, securing at the same time the necessary qualifications, we hailed the passage of the law as a bright omen of future advancement; but the table will show that the brightness of our omen was that of murky darkness.

Founded on the Official Army Register for 1832.

George Bomford, the 3d Lt. Col. in the Army, made Colonel.
George Talcott, the 6th Capt. in the Army, placed over 5 Captains, 11 Majors, made Lt. Colonel.
H. K. Craig, the 9th Capt. in the Army, placed over 7 Captains, made 1st Major.
W. J. Worth, the 13th Capt. in the Army, placed over 11 Captains, made 2d Major.
R. L. Baker, the 24th Capt. in the Army, made 1st Captain.
James W. Ripley, the 78th Capt. in the Army, made 2nd Captain.
Richard Bache, the 1st 1st Lieut. in the Army, made 3d Captain.
J. Symington, the 24th 1st Lieut. in the Army, made 4th Captain.
Wm. H. Bell, the 38th 1st Lieut. in the Army, made 5th Captain.
Edward Harding, the 77th 1st Lieut. in the Army, made 6th Captain.
Alfred Mordecai, the 7th 2d Lieut. in the Army, placed over 6 2d Lieuts. 148 1st Lieuts. made 7th Captain.
Benjamin Huger, the 22d 2d Lieut. in the Army, placed over 20 2d Lieuts. 148 1st Lieuts. made 8th Captain.
J. A. J. Bradford, the 76th 2d Lieut. in the Army, placed over 73 2d Lieuts. 148 1st Lieuts. made 9th Captain.
John Hills, the 91st Bvt. 2d Lieut. in the Army, placed over 90 *Brevets,* 148 *2d Lieuts.* 148 *1st Lieuts. made* 10*th Captain.*

Is not here just cause of indignation? Is not here a violation of our dearest rights? Is not here, I ask, enough to extinguish the brightest beam of military glory, were it as refulgent as the noon-day sun? Not only are one and two grades overleaped, but the *youngest Brevet second Lieutenant in the whole Army is placed over the heads of* THREE HUNDRED AND EIGHTY-SIX SUBALTERNS *and made a Captain.* A.

The complaint in the present instance is, that certain officers have been selected to fill certain offices or places in a new department, lately created by law, called *the Ordnance Department*, or as they are styled, *the Ordnance Corps.*

We like to see exhibited by our military officers a laudable ambition and desire of promotion, as well as a proper *esprit du corps;* but while we should be willing to cherish such a disposition in them, we think that this disposition should be regulated by professional knowledge, and a proper regard for the rules of the service.

Congress, by an act passed during the session of 1831–2, authorised the establishment of a Department, to be called *the Ordnance Department,* to consist of one Colonel, one Lt. Colonel, two Majors, and ten Captains. After the passage of the law, it was the duty of the President to select persons to fill these offices, and to submit their names to the Senate, for the concurrence of that body, as to their appointment. The President was not bound, either by the law or by precedent, to take these officers from the Army, but was at liberty to make all the appointments, if he thought fit to do so, from the citizens at large; but, out of regard to the Army, and from the conviction that it afforded the best materials for carrying into effect the object of the law, he ordered a board of general officers to make the selections from the officers of the Army, and submit the list to him, in order to aid him in his duties as the appointing power. The board did make the selections accordingly; and it is believed the persons recommended are those exhibited in the above list. In performing the delicate duty assigned to the board of general officers, the qualifications, rather than the rank, of the officers, must naturally have guided them in their selections. The interest of the service alone was the object of the President in making the appointments; as it likewise must have been the intention of Congress in authorising an Ordnance Department; and not the mere advancement of officers according to seniority, from the different corps of the Army, into a distinct and important service, with the duties of which but few of them could be supposed to be well acquainted. The functions of the Ordnance Department are of a civil, rather than of a military, nature. The Department is a Commissariat for the manufacturing, purchasing, storing, and delivery of all kinds of arms and ammunition to the regular and militia forces; and to perform the duties required in that Department, an intimate knowledge of practical mechanics, chemistry, and various other branches of science, is requisite to be possessed by the officers who ought to belong to it, as well as steady and business habits. It is plain, under this view of the subject, that every officer of the Army, however chivalrous or well instructed in the ordinary routine of regimental duties, is not to be presumed, on that account alone, to be qualified to perform the important and responsible functions of an ordnance officer. A selection, therefore, it appears to us, was proper and necessary, if the paramount interests of the service were to be considered, rather than the advancement of the officers of the Army according to seniority. We can hardly think any officer, who wished to distinguish himself *in feats of arms,* would desire to leave the line of the Army, where the very arms supplied by the Ordnance are to be handled and employed against the enemies of his country, for the laborious and secluded studies, and tedious manipulations of the Arsenal.

As it regards the rights of the officers of the line, we cannot discover how they have been infringed or invaded by the selections made to fill the Ordnance Department. As far as our knowledge of military rules enables us

to judge and speak of the matter, promotions in the Army are made regimentally to the rank of Captain, thence in the line of field officers to the command of a regiment, within the limits of their respective arms, as cavalry, infantry, and artillery, and there the regular promotion ends. All other appointments in the Army, including those of general and staff officers, are matter of selection, without regard to corps or arm.

It is not apparent how any officer of the Army can conceive that his rights are at all impaired, by the selection of one of his brother officers to fill a place in a separate and distinct service, without interfering with his duties or prerogatives in his own corps, and probably taken from above him in his own particular regiment, so as to give him some advantage by the abstraction and transfer. Should these Ordnance officers be returned to their respective regiments, with the advanced rank they may have acquired by the transfer, and placed over the heads of those by whom they were formerly ranked, then some reason might be found for dissatisfaction; but under the present circumstances, as they actually are presented, there is no reason, in our opinion, to find fault or be discontented, unless it be the prerogative of the officers of the Army to judge of the acts of the President and Senate. The Army, on the contrary, ought to rejoice, that their prospects of preferment are increased by the addition of new corps to the military establishment.

The same remarks are generally applicable to the new regiment of Dragoons; and happy and contented ought the officers to be, that the President has so far regarded their individual interests, as to confine the selection of officers to fill them, to those now in the public military service.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

The Secretary of the Navy returned to the Seat of Government, on or about the 25th of May, from his tour to the south. He visited some of the principal towns in the western states, New Orleans, Mobile, Pensacola, Savannah, Charleston, and Norfolk; he was absent 55 days, of which 19 were spent in different cities, and in the examination of the various public works connected with the Navy and the maritime defences of the south; during the other 33 days he travelled a distance exceeding 4,200 miles.

Rumor asserts that Commodore CHARLES STEWART, one of the Board of Navy Commissioners, intends to resign that situation, and will be succeeded by Commodore ISAAC CHAUNCEY, for several years past Commandant of the Navy Yard at Brooklyn, N. Y. Commodore CHARLES G. RIDGELY, it is also said, will be appointed to the command of the Yard, vacated by the transfer of Commodore CHAUNCEY. None of these changes have yet taken place, although they are all within the range of probability.

Capt. ALEXANDER S. WADSWORTH has been appointed to the command of the U. S. Naval forces in the Pacific, and will take passage in the sloop of war Vincennes, to relieve Commodore DOWNES.

The Natchez, Capt. ZANTZINGER, sailed from Norfolk for the Coast of Brazil, on the —— May. The following officers took passage in her:— Lieuts. James M. Watson, T. D. Shaw, and W. W. Hunter.

Capt. CHARLES S. MCCAULEY has been relieved from the command of the Fairfield, in consequence of domestic affliction; and Capt. E. A. F. VALLETTE ordered to succeed him. The Fairfield sailed from New York for the Pacific, on the 28th May.

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OF THE

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FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

THE FIRST CAMPAIGN OF AN A.D.C.,

NO. II.

Fort Niagara was a place of some historical notoriety. It had been a frontier post, since the first occupation of the country, having been successively possessed by the French, English, and Americans; all regarding it as commanding an important avenue of inland communication. We, all of us, recollected more or less about the siege of Sir William Johnston, and felt a curiosity to see the remaining traces, and hear the still floating traditions, of that event. Those of us, who, in anticipation of such a visit, had been adroit enough to refresh the memory, respecting that event, appeared to much advantage; while others, who depended on the reminiscences of by-gone reading, were rather less at home than they probably would have been in the siege of Troy, or destruction of Carthage.

The position of this Fort is well selected, and justifies the preference it has found under all dominations. The Niagara river, for about two or three miles from its mouth, forms a gentle curve, of which the two banks are parallel lines. The outer line is represented by the American side, and Fort Niagara, being on the extreme point, not only commands the embouchure, but the inner roadstead also; at least to that point where the inflection of the river cuts off the range. Aware of

this, the British, when excluded from the right bank, instead of establishing a work directly opposite, ascended the river about a mile, and occupied the apex of the inner curve; thus giving up all contest for the entrance, and extending their command of the stream above. The work here erected, was called Fort George.

While the troops, which had come from Buffalo, proceeded to "four mile creek," which was down the shore of Lake Ontario, the distance expressed by the name, the Etat Major (as we affectedly called ourselves, or had been termed in some order) took quarters in the Fort. The appearance of the work pretty well answered the image which fancy had given to it; having pretensions to about as much antiquity, as the brief existence of cis-atlantic establishments seems to admit. Several of the buildings were of stone, and of a peculiar architecture; being flat-roofed, and of a somewhat battlemented aspect, that gave them a slight feudal character. These were probably of English origin; as, while the French possessed the place, there could hardly have been deemed a necessity for such substantial defences. The smaller wooden buildings were of American construction, contrasting strongly with their solid and time-resisting neighbors, and looking much as a modern militia-man would by the side of a knight in ancient armor. The "mess-house," as it was termed, the largest of the stone buildings, had walls of the strength and thickness of a modern penitentiary, or an ancient castle, and was in part bomb-proof. Its windows were contracted, and on its flat roof appeared, at this time, a small piece of ordnance, or grasshopper, which we were told, had borne an important part in a bombardment that had taken place between the two sides of the river, a few days before our arrival. Either because a roof of that construction did not suit a snowy climate, or because it had been neglected, the interior of this building was, at that time, nearly untenantable, and occupied only by a few soldiers' families, which made shift to avoid the drip of the leaks and crevices as well as they could, regarding its dark and cavernous rooms as only a lesser evil than the open air. Among these families was a female, who had acquired a local celebrity by her intrepid bearing during the late bombardment. While our group was standing around the grasshopper, her exploits, which were connected with this piece, naturally became the theme of remark and commendation.—Within some of the lower cells of the mess-house, a furnace had been arranged, for the heating of shot for the piece above; and a soldier, whose family had a dormitory there, was appointed to attend upon it. Early in the bombardment, this soldier was killed; and his widow, either because she regarded herself as heir to his employments, or with a view to avenge her griefs, insisted on succeeding him in his igniferous task; and it was

said that, throughout the day, she discharged her hazardous duty in the most exemplary manner; each time, when the glowing missile had been sent off on its destructive errand, watching its course across the strait, and if it chanced to strike a combustible part of the enemy's work, exulting in its success, as if it had been the special messenger of her vengeance. Our curiosity was all impatience to see this sort of Joan of Arc; the younger part of us at once investing her, in our imaginations, with all the reputed charms of the Gallic amazon. She was accordingly summoned to the roof; and we were sadly disappointed when we found the reality better answering the description of Meg Merillies than that of the Maid of Orleans. She was also without any traces of recent bereavement, having perhaps lost the widow in the heroine.

At this time, we were all on tiptoe of expectation, as to the result of the expedition against York, U. C. knowing that the fleet had borne a brigade against that place about simultaneously with our arrival at Fort Niagara. We likewise knew that some tremendous shock had taken place there, as the concussion had been slightly felt even on our side of the Lake, about forty miles distant; and some officers, who were at the time on the heights of Lewistown, saw a column of fire the following evening in that quarter, a faint light of which was observed even by us, when attention became directed that way. These signs were of a portentous character, and filled all minds with extreme solicitude and impatience. The more general conjecture seemed to be, that the Pike, our largest vessel in the expedition, had been blown up, and fancy was busy in calculating the deplorable consequences, when a precursor of the fleet brought over intelligence of the actual events, which, though disastrous enough, were not precisely those which had been predicted. The explosion proved to have been that of the enemy's powder magazine, supposed to have been fired intentionally, just as he was retreating, in order to destroy our advancing column. This supposition, at the time, appeared to be entertained by all, although many of his own soldiers were involved in the destruction that followed,—enough, one would think, to have discredited it, and to have assigned it to its probable cause, that is, accident. But that was not a moment for scanning probabilities, or very liberal considerations. An easy conquest had been purchased at a great cost, and Gen. Sheaffe, the British commandant, was believed to have resorted to this indefensible and atrocious means of injury, after he had abandoned all hope and intention of further resistance, and was on a full retreat.

The head of our column had approached within a few hundred yards of the magazine, when a temporary halt was made, in order that some pieces of light artillery, reversing an abandoned battery, might be arranged, so as to enfilade the town,

preparatory to a further advance. Most of the troops, during this interval, were relieving their fatigue by sitting or lying down on the ground in their ranks; thus inadvertently exposing themselves, in the most obnoxious manner, to the effects of the disaster that soon occurred. The magazine was constructed of stone, and the quantity of powder exploded in it, was sufficient to send aloft the whole mass in a shower of fragments. Although much extended, our troops were mostly within its wide-spreading penumbra, and a large portion too near for a possibility of escape. Astounded by the unexpected shock, they had hardly time to trace up the eruption through its rapid parabola, instinctively watching its direction, ere the heavy fragments came booming down on their devoted heads, with a directness and celerity, that seemed to admit no other precaution or defence, than that mere shrinking up or concentration of the form, which is the last resort of all animals under impending and seemingly inevitable destruction. Many were immediately crushed down to, and even into, the earth, ending their agonies at once in death or insensibility. But more were doomed to, perhaps, a less enviable fate, surviving with bodies maimed and mashed almost into deformity.

Each officer had his tale of adventures to tell, in answer to our eager inquiries. The sombre shades of the picture were sometimes enlivened by a dash of the comic. One artillery officer said, that, as he saw the petrescent shower descending, finding his gun alone holding out a semblance of shelter, he suddenly bowed himself at right angles under its friendly ægis, and escaped with only a few rents in those parts of his garments, which projected beyond the cover. Another, seeing an empty pork barrel at hand, made a rapid retreat of head and shoulders within its rotundity, leaving his nether man to bide the pelting of the pitiless storm. His remark was, that the falling stones beat a tattoo on the bilge of the barrel, which he thought was to put him to sleep forever. A third, somewhat given to jocular hyperbole, stated that, at the imminent moment, being reclining on the ground, a large soldier, who was rushing he knew not whither, without much respect for persons, stumbled and fell upon him; that, self-preservation, the first law of nature, at once suggested to his mind, that this shield, which had fallen upon him by chance, should be preserved by design. He accordingly seized on the flanks of the superincumbent soldier with an iron grip, maintaining him in precisely that happy state of interposition, which he had himself assumed, until the storm had passed. It was added by the narrator, that his protector received many contusions, and had some limbs broken, while he escaped with only a temporary sort of a night-mare.

Among the victims of this disastrous event, the most illus-

trious was Gen. Pike, who had the immediate command of the attack. He was seated on the ground at the moment of the explosion, awaiting the arrangement of the artillery alluded to before, and received a contusion on the spine, which left life only sufficient to enable him to reach the vessel, from which he had disembarked only a few hours before, in all the buoyancy of a gallant spirit. He was regretted by the whole army; and most of those officers at Niagara, who had served under him, when they heard of his untimely fate, lamented it in a manner that was a high eulogium on his character. Had he lived, that campaign which he began with so much animation and success, might have terminated more creditably to the army and satisfactorily to the country.

After the arrival of this precursor of the fleet, we were all on the *qui vive* for the return of the fleet itself. It was known that the plan was, after destroying the public property at York, and capturing or dispersing the garrison there, to join the forces at Niagara, and make an attack on Fort George. The fleet soon appeared, and anchored in the neighborhood. The troops were immediately disembarked at the four mile creek, and the wounded brought to Fort Niagara. Seldom has a hospital exhibited such a spectacle of misery. The patients of a military ward-room, especially those that come in after a battle, generally present a mixture of health and disability that are strangely contrasted, but which soften many of the revolting features of an infirmary. But in this case, although the victims were in high health when they were overwhelmed by the explosion, yet, such was the mashing effect of it, that the human form often lost all its distinctive characteristics, and looked like a shapeless mass of livid bloatedness. And, to fill up the cup of their misery, a cold rain came on, which, trickling through the crannied roof of the mess-house—which had been selected as the temporary hospital, seemingly out of more regard to the garrison, in comfortable quarters, than the unfortunate sufferers—drenched most of their scanty palliasses with water. It was a scene little likely to awaken in us, who had yet all the freshness and susceptibility of recruits, those animating feelings which should cheer the outset of a campaign. Those of us who were disposed to ask ourselves Falstaff's question about honor, found a ready answer in the spectacle before us.

But other thoughts were soon roused in our minds. The rain passed away; the sick were made more comfortable; and a new prospect began to open upon us. It was known that the fleet had proceeded to Sacket's Harbor, for the purpose of bringing up the Lake such reinforcements as were deemed necessary in the more important attack then in anticipation; as soon as we should see it at anchor again off the four mile creek, we knew that another trial was to be made of the enemy's vul-

nerability. As our force was now large, much transport was necessarily to be prepared. This work, together with other preliminary duties, filled the camp with occupation, and gave every thing an animated aspect. The troops, which were to embark in the new expedition—embracing all but a proper garrison for Fort Niagara,—were concentrated at four mile creek. This spot was still occupied by the virgin forest. The encampment was arranged on the two sides of the creek, with as much order as the trees would admit; and, as the May sun was shining out brilliantly over our heads, and the May flowers were springing up in beauty under our feet, all, at least those of us who had young hearts and excitable imaginations, forgot the past, and surrendered the future to kind Providence and smiling fortune. Those of that character who had the privilege of the stirrup and spur, made the saddle a familiar and almost constant seat. Our sleek and pampered steeds, richly caparisoned, were hourly at our tents, ready to bear us, like winged Mercuries, on our many errands of duty; now threading the mazes of the camp, prancing among the fluttering canvass and outstretched cords, with affected carelessness, but in reality, with reins guided by an unerring hand; or, at intervals of leisure, galloping through the woods, pleased to encounter a prostrate tree, which only lent occasion for a deer-like bound, in all the gallant coxcombry of youthful ardor. We rose with the reveillée, that ushered in the dawn, where, as yet, no cock had ever crowed; awaited, with sharp and ready appetites, for "pease upon the trencher," that announced the hour of breakfast; dined at the sound, if not on the substance, of "roast beef;" and closed the curtains of our tents with the last stroke of the tattoo. The nights were clear and starry, and the dews of heaven, descending through the leafy canopy above, and the spreading canvass beneath, fell so attempered on our couches, as scarcely to be felt. When they came down, chilled by one of those frosts that will sometimes linger on the lap of May, we were accustomed to borrow from the culinary fire at hand, a few glowing coals, which were deposited in a slight excavation in the centre of the tent. Stretched on our camp-stools for the night, with a blanket and our martial cloak wrapped closely around us, it was soothing to sink into slumber, watching the glowing hearth, and feeling its genial warmth. It was comfort in miniature. This slumber was generally at hand; and, as the eyes closed, the senses were at once steeped in forgetfulness. But if the mind, as was sometimes the case, wished to take advantage of the quiet hour, to give recollection or reflection that range which was denied by the stirring scenes of the day, the time and place was in harmony with such a mood. After the bright coals had thrown over the last glimmer their cinerous shroud, as if in sympathy with the general repose, it was but to

turn the eyes on the canvass above, and, while endeavoring to trace out the faintly shadowed outlines of the lofty trees above, and listening to the whispering sound of their breezy agitations, reveries, dwelling either on past enjoyments, or coming glories, could be indulged to the heart's content. There was something in the stillness around, interrupted only occasionally by the measured tread of the relief, as it made its periodical circuit, so strongly contrasted with the babel-like bustle of the day, that, in a dreamy moment, one could hardly believe that the forest had not, by some magic, been restored to its primitive silence and solitude, and the thousands which had lately peopled it been suddenly spirited away.

The boats, which were destined to transport the troops and artillery to the enemy's shore, had mostly been built about five miles up the Niagara river. The progress of this work had been closely watched from the other side. No attempt had been made to cross and interrupt it, though constantly apprehended; but it was believed that, whenever the larger ones should be launched in the river, preparatory to a descent to the Lake, that the enemy would open on them all his means of annoyance and destruction. Some stratagem was necessary to avoid this, and night was, of course, the only time suited to such an operation; as, under its cover, the boats might possibly escape unobserved, or be subject only to the random shots of darkness. When they were all ready for descent, it was determined to cause a diversion of the enemy's attention, by a bombardment from Fort Niagara. Accordingly, when the night arrived, designated for this movement, the stillness of the evening was suddenly broken by a reverberating mortar, which sent a bomb high in the air, so that even we, who were in the camp, could mark the apex of its glowing curve in the dark heavens, as it ascended for a moment above the leafy horizon around us, though quickly disappearing, and leaving the ear to await that smothered percussion, which told when it had finished its destructive errand. While the enemy was engaged in watching and dodging these unwelcome and rather unexpected visitants, the flotilla was quietly launched above, and sent down, under cover of the darkness and confusion, so as to reach our encampment without any material injury.

Deserters were occasionally coming in, and such was the anxiety for getting information, that the scoundrels were always greeted with a hearty welcome. They were all subjected to a severe inquisition at head quarters, respecting the strength, position of the enemy, and, above all, whether he had any *mines* to spring. The explosion at York had naturally left a strong impression on the minds of all, and it was believed that this villainous use of the villainous salt petre, was to be a common mode of warfare with the British. There was a light-house on

the point opposite to Fort Niagara, which, being constructed of stone, and near the place where the landing would likely be made, was supposed to present irresistible temptations to a renewal of the tragedy of York. Every deserter denied any knowledge of such an intention, and expressed a belief that the light-house would be an immovable as well as insensible spectator of any conflicts that might be carried on around it. Still there were probably few persons in the American camp, from the General down to the drummer-boy, who did not think it prudent, that all movements in that quarter should give it a wide birth.

The fleet was now hourly expected from Sacket's Harbor, immediately after the arrival of which the meditated attack was to be made. The near approach of such an event, naturally made it the topic of much conversation, and doubtless occupied most of our thoughts. Those of us who had not seen the face of the enemy, nor "smelt gunpowder," in the technical sense of the phrase, regarded it with more anxiety than we were willing to confess. It was somewhat amusing to see the contrast between us, who had our maiden fight yet to come, and those who, at York, had passed through the ordeal. When they fancied our hearts began to fail us, they would cast a patronizing look upon us, and seem to say, "cheer up—we will show you the way." There was a difference in the aspect and bearing of the two classes. The heroes of York assumed the privilege of wearing their caps more on one side, of giving greater latitude to their whiskers, and particularly of cultivating large mustachios. Some of us unfledged ones had also permitted the latter to encroach on the upper lip; but we wore them with a less confident air, and seldom, while conversing, ventured to devote a thumb and finger constantly to them, for the double purpose of calling attention to them, and giving them that Turk-like twist, which was deemed the perfection of these labial ornaments. There were some other distinctions equally obvious. While we, the "spinsters" of the camp, modestly wore our unfleshed swords in the sheath, excepting when on parade, almost ashamed of their brightness, many of the Yorkers were in the habit of carrying a naked weapon on all occasions, with no scabbard at the belt, as if it had been thrown away as a useless incumbrance, at the opening of the campaign. This weapon had little more lustre, and full as much edge, as a mower's scythe; and was brandished about with a grace and dexterity, that showed the hilt to be perfectly at home in the hand, every now and then decapitating a high weed or a low bush, as an example of the fare an enemy might receive if he stood in the place of either.

But, notwithstanding these little coxcombries, the Yorkers were entitled to a precedency, and we all regarded the chances

of the coming enterprise, as being greatly improved by the dash of experience and well-tried gallantry, which they threw into our force. And all that shyness of intercourse, which for a brief time, prevailed between the two parties, soon yielded to more frank and soldierly feeling. A camp is the crucible for amalgamation. It demands either open enmity, or right down fellowship. The former is an occasional storm, that thunders and lightens and strikes for a moment, and then all is the more clear and sunny. A lukewarm regard implies a distrust that calls for explanation. The bubble reputation there, cannot bear the slightest puncture; for if a breath escape, it bursts and vanishes. Besides, the hospitality of a camp is free and primitive as that of a huddle of wigwams. There is neither knocker nor latch to the entrance of a tent. The folds are thrown back, and bespeak an open house and an open heart. Our wine cask, too, which stood at the threshold, with a ready spigot, had its attractions; and by the time the fleet arrived from Sacket's Harbor, all distinctive shades had disappeared, and no other thought prevailed, than who should best perform his part in the approaching drama.

Every preparation having been made, when we beheld the fleet throwing down its anchors abreast our encampment, we knew that the order for "crossing" would soon follow. Such was the fact. Head quarters were about a mile from the camp. Staff officers were shortly seen coming thence with slackened reins and foaming bit; and adjutants, at the well known signal, were immediately observed, with their orderly books, hurrying to Brigade head quarters. Having finished their errand with rapid penmanship, after a brief interval, another beat concentrated each regiment on its ground, when the important tidings, which had but just, as it were, left the mouth of the General in Chief, reached the ear of every private soldier. During the lapse of these few pregnant minutes, scarcely a whisper was heard throughout the camp, all being hushed to the quiet of heedful expectation. The sudden movement of some thousands of feet, set in simultaneous motion by the dismission of the regiments, and the hum of half as many tongues let loose at the same moment, soon told that every bosom had caught the animating spirit of a change.

Although it was supposed that every preliminary had been attended to, and that the order would find no hindrance to an immediate execution, yet, when the responsible hour arrived, and each officer looked with anxious scrutiny into his state of readiness, enough was ascertained to be still undone, to cause much bustle, hurry and confusion. Besides, there were some things which necessarily appertain to the last moment, and can only follow the order; such as the contents of the *haversack*, &c. The commissariat was now all in a hurly-burly, to replen-

ish these important receptacles; and fires began to send up their ruddy flames on every side, betokening the full progress of concoction. The quartermasters, too, were seen impatiently completing those arrangements relative to the transports, which, although completed a thousand times, always leave something supplemental to be done. As the whole movement was to be made in boats, and these boats were to be moved by oars, these "wooden sails" were objects of the most covetous regard.—Notwithstanding all possible attention to provide a due supply, many a boat, in this time of need, was found to be deficient,—at least, without that full complement that was deemed essential by the officer whose fortunes were to be embarked in it. To purloin in such a case, particularly to exchange a bad for a good oar, was not considered *contra bonos mores;* unless, according to the Spartan rule, the despoiler was detected; and much furtive adroitness was exerted on the occasion, the "game of grab," as it was termed, being the order of the day. Some, who disdained to take lessons in it, who could not stoop to conquer, perhaps regretted their fastidiousness, when it was too late.

Night had now some time shut in, the tattoo having been dispensed with, in order that all preparations might be fully completed. This having been done by the second watch of the night, and the men finding leisure on their hands, which they must employ either in sleep, or reflections on the coming day, they naturally, in the absence of all inclination for the former, began to devise means of banishing the latter. It so happened, that *back rations* of candles, to a considerable amount, had been issued about this time. This store of lights, on the eve of an event, the result of which no one could anticipate, seemed to have no value; and it appeared suddenly to occur to the troops, that they could not be better employed than in dispersing the gloom of that interval, which must precede the anxiously expected dawn. Accordingly, little flickering blazes began gradually to gem the front of every tent. In a short time, the lower branches of the small trees at hand were studded in the same way, and seemed to bloom in light. It was a brilliant and fanciful sight to the spectators on the side of the creek opposite to this sylvan illumination. As the busy actors in this scene watched its development, they appeared to catch enthusiasm from its success. The galaxy was seen to rise by degrees, until it reached the tallest trees that overshadowed the tents, and the whole forest glowed with effulgence and beauty. Not a breath of air was in the heavens to disturb the tiny lustres. To complete the garishness of the exhibition, many of the barrels, which this large call on the commissariat had left empty and discarded, were seized on by the purveyors of these pyrotechnicks, and enkindled beneath the trees, sending up a

ruddy glare that bedimmed the lesser lights above. Thousands of gladsome voices, mingling with the merry laugh and joyous shout, were heard around. As no enemy was near, to take advantage of discipline thus let loose, the hilarity was permitted to exhaust itself unchecked. Many a heart was thus made light, that might have saddened during the vigil of a night that so inevitably ushered in the hazards of a battle.

But this accidental Saturnalia gradually died away. The fading tapers among the trees became extinct one after another, and the shadows of night resumed their dominion, save where the remains of a half-burnt cask still sent up an occasional glimmer. And, as these excitements subsided into darkness, the hum of the soldiers also sunk into silence; until the sentinels, who, amid this tumult, had imperturbably walked their posts, were alone awake, and watching the descending stars, whose successive disappearance beneath the western horizon, marked that brief interval which kept back the coming day.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

PETTY OFFICERS OF THE NAVY.

The want of good petty officers and of seamen, is daily felt in the Naval service of the United States; and in my opinion, loudly calls on those practically conversant with details, to offer such ideas to the public, as experience or theory may suggest, to remedy the growing evil. What appears to me singular, is, that the subject should not long since have engaged, more actively, the attention of Government, and that a call has not been made on the Board of Navy Commissioners, to devise some plan calculated to afford future relief or remedy. This has not been done, or if it has, no project, that I know of, has been made public. As a friend to the Navy, I have thought much on the subject; I feel conscious that the marine armament of my country is identified with its prosperity; and that, sooner or later, we shall depend upon it as the most important national instrument of offence or defence. With such impressions I trust and hope that what I am about to suggest, may meet with all the indulgence that good intentions merit, whether deemed practicable or otherwise. I shall be satisfied, however, should my views lead others, more competent than myself, to take up the subject.

Our present Naval establishment is, when we look back but a few years, and compare what it was with what it now is, like in its rapid growth to the palaces thrown up by the power of

Aladdin's wonderful lamp. Seamen, however, (without which that establishment must languish,) cannot be made with the same facility; unless, indeed, measures be taken to encourage and reward men who devote themselves to a profession, in which fatigue and privation of every kind must be endured, before attaining even the slightest insight into their qualifications and duties. In the merchant service of our country, it is common to have what are called apprentices, bound either to the master or owner of the vessel, to serve a certain number of years. These boys, if they conduct themselves well, are generally, after five or six years service on board ship, advanced to the situation of mate, and progressively onward, until they arrive at a command.

But our merchants do not always like to assume responsibilities of this kind, and many parents, who would gladly avail themselves of this mode to give professions to their sons, are prevented by a maternal and laudable reluctance, to throw them on the world without some moral guide or instructer.

Now I would ask, why should not the United States enter into contracts of this nature and for this purpose? I know of no good reason to prevent it; but on the contrary, am satisfied that if done, the Navy of our country would, in a very few years, have all the subordinate stations on board a vessel of war, filled by native Americans, competent and willing to devote their lives and talents to its service. Our public vessels, when fully manned and officered, afford the best school for the description of seamen most wanted in the Navy,—such as boatswains, gunners, carpenters, and sail makers; mates to all the above mentioned classes of officers, as also quartermasters, quartergunners, &c.

The four first mentioned are, in the Navy of the United States, warranted officers; are provided with comfortable quarters on board ship, and find no inconsiderable respect attached to their stations, being subordinate, in a Naval point of view, only to the commander and lieutenants of the vessel. I am credibly informed, that at this moment, but few belong to the Navy, in all the above named situations, who can either read or write.

How, then, can these men be justly held responsible (as, by the rules of the Naval service they are,) for expenditures to an immense amount? They are, and must be, dependent upon the honesty of some aid or assistant, who is generally placed to superintend the delivery of articles from the store room.

The utter ignorance of this class of officers is so notorious, that I have frequently heard the officers of the Navy express the wish that some means could be adopted to fill their stations with more competent men. I would therefore suggest as a remedy, that all the public vessels take on board a certain num-

ber of boys, from 12 to 14 years of age; that they should be bound by articles of agreement, entered into between the parents or guardians and the United States, to serve the United States, either at the Navy Yard, or on board the public vessels, until they arrive at the age of 21; the United States reserving the right to discharge any one guilty of misconduct, at any moment they may think proper; engaging to provide them, at the Navy Yards, or on board the public ships, with a competent officer, who shall instruct them in reading, writing, and cyphering; to clothe and feed them at the public expense; and to pay them a sum of money not to exceed two dollars per month; that so soon as these boys shall have passed three years at sea, and can produce from their commanding officer a certificate of good conduct and capability, they shall be permitted to select for themselves a permanent situation in the Navy, in either of the stations of boatswain, gunner, carpenter, or sail maker; and that they shall be numbered as they are transferred to each situation. My own opinion is, that so great a number of valuable petty officers and of seamen, would be produced by this regulation, that it would be found necessary to provide for many who might otherwise be idle for years. I, therefore, further suggest, that after having made their selection, they be compelled to pass through all the grades, as follows:—the one selecting the office of boatswain should, when competent to the duties, be first rated seaman, then boatswain's mate; the eldest of them having passed through the prior grades, should, in the event of the death or dismissal of any boatswain, fall heir to his station—provided always that he has equal merits to those below him; the same course should be adopted as relates to the situation of gunner, the carpenter, and sail maker; they should complete their professional educations at the different Navy Yards.

In submitting the above ideas to the public, and to Naval officers in particular, I must offer my apology to the latter for any errors that I may have inadvertently committed.

I am only a

LANDSMAN.

MILITIA OF THE UNITED STATES.

(Continued from page 243.)

Experience having thus produced the conviction that a department under the direction of a responsible officer, is essential for the regulation of the Militia, the inquiry becomes pertinent, why should not the National Government adopt the means which, under its authority, the several States enjoy for

the management of this important interest, and provide for the appointment of an officer whose whole duty it shall be to attend to Militia concerns, and thus open to itself a channel of information similar to that which it possesses in every other branch of its authority ?

Though the utility of the proposed measure is almost sufficiently apparent, without further illustration, yet its advantages will be more conspicuous when the power and duties of the officer shall be pointed out. But before this is attempted, lest any one should suppose that there might be a constitutional impediment to the arrangement arising from the power of the states to provide for the appointment of all militia officers, it becomes necessary to make the previous remark, that the officer for whose appointment legal provision is proposed, would be an officer of the United States, and not a militia officer. If it were not so, the constitutional obstacle would be paramount. The United States' Adjutant General of the Militia, would be provided for the bureau, and, as he would of course have no command, there would be no more constitutional impediment to the Congressional provision that all the returns of the militia of the several states should be made to the President through the Adjutant General of the Militia, and that he should prescribe the forms of those returns, than there is, that they should be made through the Secretary of War, and that he should perform that duty, as is the case by the existing provision. Now, for the want of an officer who by law is obliged distinctly to attend to militia concerns, all the duty of the Secretary relating to them is performed ex gratia by the Adjutant General of the Army. Thus the returning officers of the militia of the several states, make their returns to, and receive their forms from, an officer of the General Staff of the Army, inferior to them in rank, and, to the constitutional authority and control of whose principal, they are not subject.

The jealousy of concentrated power which existed at the adoption of the Constitution, caused the states, when they granted to the federal government the unlimited power to maintain armies, build navies, and raise revenues, to reserve to themselves the militia force, except when its use defensively might be required for the preservation of the national domain and peace, against foreign foes and rebellious subjects. This power must then be considered as the grand physical characteristic of state sovereignty. Without it, the pillars of the Union would be too slender to support the national fabric. Those therefore who have a just estimate of the importance of the state sovereignties for upholding the national structure, will be careful to avoid the amalgamation of the national and state forces, even so far as their holding correspondence with, and making their returns through, the same member of the general staff, has a tendency to produce it.

Viewed in this light alone, the suggestion must strike every one as an improvement in the present practice. For, as the army and militia are different bodies, the one exclusively a national, and the other, (except in actual service, under the command of the President,) definitely a state force, their distinctive character should forever be preserved. Besides, as the habits and character of the army and militia are different, the instructions must be different, and the forms of returns different, according to the organization and habits of duty in each, the expediency, even if no other consideration presented, is illustrated of having a separate officer assigned to each branch of service.

Notwithstanding the extent of this great state reservation, so long as the body politic preserves its moral strength, the most important, and, indeed, almost the only cases in which the militia will be called into service, will be under the federal power. Considering it then as a muscle in the national arm, the militia should be so arranged as always to co-operate with the army. The United States' Adjutant General of the Militia should consequently be attached to the War Department, so that the orders of the President to these national forces should pass to their destination through the same primary organ. The rank of the Adjutants General of the several states, should be fixed by Congress, as is that of other officers, and the United States' Adjutant General should have precedence of them; so that when called to act on Boards of Officers, or otherwise, conjointly with officers of the army or militia, he should rank the latter. He should reside at the seat of government of the United States; and the returns of the whole body of the militia in peace, and that part of it which is not detached for the national service in war, or other periods of constitutional emergency, would be made through the Adjutant General of the Militia; while those of the troops placed in the service of the United States, would be made by the officers commanding them, under the authority of the President, through the office of the Adjutant General of the Army, as at present.

As no confusion would result from this organization, then, let us look more minutely into the authority of the additional officer, that we may judge of its benefit.

Among other duties, the United States' Adjutant General of the Militia shall be obliged to furnish blank forms of all the different returns that may be required, and to explain the principles on which they shall be made: to prepare and distribute to the several states, books of instruction, suited to the militia organization, for the drill and exercise of all the various corps of which the militia consists, according to the system of discipline prescribed for the army; and adopt all necessary and proper means for bringing the system into general use; to receive

all the returns of the militia of the several states and territories, and to make abstracts of the same once in every year, exhibiting the number of divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions, and companies: of what corps they consist; the strength of each, the number of officers and men, and the condition of their arms, accoutrements, and ammunition. He shall also make inquiries respecting the local boundaries, and extent of the different divisions of the militia, the state of their organization and drill, and the force which can be brought to the defence of their important neighboring positions in any given time, obtain the information needed to enable the President to call for the militia of the several States, or any particular division of it, under the act of Congress in 1795, to the greatest public advantage, and by his returns, the number of men which are taken into the national employ, the divisions from which they are detached, and the effective strength which remains in reserve, either for future drafts, or to guard against unexpected attacks, shall always appear. He will likewise prepare forms for the return of all the arms and equipments furnished the several States and Territories, under the act of the 23d of April, 1808, "for arming and equipping the whole body of the militia of the United States," exhibiting the manner in which they are kept, or how they are distributed; of books of instruction, and of all other property, which shall be furnished to the militia, at the expense of the Government. He shall collect as much information as can be obtained, relating to magazines and arsenals, belonging to the States or individuals; the quantity of powder and military stores deposited in them; the manufactories of gunpowder, muskets, rifles, swords, and other implements of war; the number of men employed, and the quantity which can be produced in any given time, at each establishment; the situation of cannon foundries, and furnaces for casting shot; the facilities of transportation, and the cost of it by land and water. He shall communicate to the Adjutants General of the several States, such information as shall be furnished to him from the Ordnance Department, relative to the best mode of keeping and preserving muskets and other fire arms, of cleaning and preserving leather harness, cartouch boxes, bayonet and sword scabbards, belts, straps, and all other military equipments; and also relating to the making of gun carriages, ammunition wagons, tumbrils and caissons, so as to produce an uniformity in their construction throughout the United States. And to cause punctuality and accuracy in the returns of the militia of the several States and Territories, provision shall be made, (if the law does not now admit of that interpretation) that the arms and equipments procured under the act of Congress, "for arming and equipping the whole body of the militia of the United States," shall be distributed among the several States and Ter-

ritories, according to the returns made of their militia for the year preceding each annual distribution. In fact, he shall collect all the information relating to the strength and condition of the militia, the materials of defence, which the country can furnish; the cost of purchase and transportation; shall keep regular files of the papers received, and a record of his correspondence; and, besides his annual returns, when called upon, he shall communicate such information to the President, as his bureau will furnish; and be liable to all such duties relating to the objects of his appointment, as the President shall assign to him.

If military men should think that a part of these duties could more properly be attached to other bureaus, it will not be controverted, it is presumed, that all the facts and information herein pointed out, are necessary to be had, and should be collected for the Government by some mean or other. In the absence of all provision for this purpose, at present, these duties have, therefore, herein been assigned to the new officer, as the first step in the work of reformation, leaving to time and experience, that more orderly arrangement or subdivision of the whole duties of the War Department, which shall appear to be most expedient.

It is also necessary to remark, that the idea is not designed to be conveyed that all the duties of the office are comprehended in the aforegoing enumeration. Enough only was intended to be shewn, to remove any doubt that the new office would be one of great utility, and that it would require the undivided and assiduous attention of at least one person for its methodical arrangement and laborious duty.

This plan, it will be perceived, has nothing new in it; but is suggested, in furtherance of the system, which, in the late organization of the Army, has wisely been introduced, providing for the residence, at Washington, of intelligent officers at the head of each Department or branch of its concerns, to collect such facts and details as the state of the country may, at any time, require for the Government's use. The President has now no officer to call upon for answers to his inquiries respecting the militia, except the Secretary of War, who, under the existing organization, possesses no official information other than such as is afforded by the present incomplete abstracts of the Annual Returns of the States and Territories, some of which have not made any for several years. He has no officer subject to his command, whom he can assign to any of those various duties, which the importance of the institution requires should be performed by a person properly qualified by intelligence and experience. The paucity of the President's information alone, and the impossibility of his obtaining it under the present system, even if no prospective advantage was likely

to be derived from it, affords an important motive for the adoption of the measure proposed. Though the positive advantages are thus shewn to be of no small consideration, the prospective are much greater; for, in the light in which the subject is viewed after long contemplation, this appears to be the best, if not the only mode, by which those improvements can eventually be made in the militia of the United States, which its capacity admits, and its present condition requires. That there will be some delay attending it, is admitted; but this will be no greater than the difficulties of the case itself create. If all the country was like New England, with the experience that is there attained, certain specific amendments to the laws might be advantageously proposed. But that is not the case. In this immense territory, the habits and customs of the people differ from each other; education, and the means of obtaining it, are widely different; the wants and necessities, the resources and objects of the several States and Territories, essentially vary from each other. What, therefore, would be useful to one, might be injurious to another. An uniform national militia, in a confederacy of sovereign States, is a desideratum, the practicability of establishing which is doubted by many, though none doubt its utility, if it can be accomplished. Shall so great an object be abandoned, then, without even an examination of the difficulties which attend it? If we would inquire into these, we shall find that some of them are habitual, and the strength of these is daily increasing; but that the most important are constitutional. These latter are not, however, supposed to be greater than those which have attended the true construction of the National and State powers in other branches of authority, and which the experience of every year is illustrating and defining. While the obstacles of habit are to be removed by new and improved practices, those emanating from constitutional provisions, it is thought, by examination, will be found to be less consequential than has been imagined. Like those arising under the judiciary power, they require only to be investigated and settled, to strengthen the connexion, and ensure the continuance of that harmonious cooperation between the State and Federal Governments, which every new decision is in practice producing. In reasoning upon constitutional barriers, with the view to an uniform system of operation in any one branch of authority, the magnitude of the impediment is often such as to make the sanguine wish for its removal by a greater concentration of power under one authority. But a recurrence to the system of checks and balances, which forms the peculiar character of our frame of Government, when its general influence is considered, will teach us that it is those very distinguishing features which preserve its identity, and which alone will secure its duration. Let us

not be uneasy under them, therefore; nor look upon the Federal Government as a foreign Government made for us, and not by us; as independent of public opinion, and not, as it is in truth, founded upon it, and receiving its daily support from that general concurrence in all its acts, which shews that the exercise of all its power is reduced to the standard of human reason. We need not fear that the same public sentiment which supports the one in all its authority, will restrain the other from usurpation; and that the united approbation of the public, which strengthens the measures of the one, will incite the other to the exercise of its co-ordinate powers. Let the National Government be content, then, with the authority which is given, and use it under the restraints imposed. Take the grant by its terms, and concede the reservation according to its intent, and thus unfasten that public jealousy, which, more than any constitutional provision, has impeded our political progress. When the United States' Government executes its own powers wisely, that public sentiment, which approves it, will produce such correlative provisions under the State authorities as are necessary. Both Governments are Governments of the People, and of the same People. Let public opinion, the great corrective of public abuse, and, at the same time, the highest incentive to patriotic exertion, be appealed to, and it need not be feared, that any constitutional object will be effected, under our present forms of Government, however complex they seem to many, if it be approved; and, if it be otherwise, whether the authority over the subject be single or co-ordinate, it matters not: for vain would be the attempt to exercise it.

The embarrassment, then, which exists to making a perfectly national militia, arises under the power reserved to the States by the Constitution to provide for officering and training the militia; while that for organizing, arming, and equipping it, and establishing the system of its discipline, is granted to the National Government. This simple enumeration shews these to be dependent powers, and it sufficiently exposes the necessity of the joint co-operation of both Governments for the advancement of the system in practice to the point intended at the time of its adoption. For it is at once apparent that the power of Congress to organize, arm, and equip, the militia, and establish its system of discipline, is of no use, unless the officers to command it are provided by the States, and the troops are disciplined according to the system prescribed. The States, who made the grant to the Federal Government of their militia powers, did it with an implied obligation of co-operation on their own part with the co-ordinate powers they reserved. The object in view warrants the belief that, but for such an understanding, the grant would not even have been accepted. But, that in different States, different modes for appointing officers

should be provided, and that a difference of sentiment should exist among them, respecting the extent of their obligation to train the militia after it is organized and officered, was to be supposed; and this, of itself, is sufficient to create serious impediments to making an entirely uniform national militia by Congressional provision solely. But though the National Government cannot do every thing to the accomplishment of this great object, it can do much. It can at least exercise the powers it has, and cease to claim those it has not.

It can conform the organization, and numbers, and rank of the officers of the militia, to the most improved modes, and thus make the rules, provided for the exercise and manœuvres of the army, applicable in practice, as they are by statute, to the militia. Definitely establishing the form of the militia organization, it will no longer permit this, the most important of all its powers, relating to this subject, to be rendered inoperative, at the "convenience" of the States. Better is it, at once, for the United States to relinquish the power, than, after having established its form, not to require its execution. We should then expect to find an uniformity of organization in each State, at least, whereas we now see companies containing from twenty to two hundred and fifty privates; regiments, from five to sixteen companies, composed sometimes entirely of infantry, sometimes of a part, and sometimes nearly of all the different corps of cavalry, artillery, infantry, light infantry, grenadiers, and riflemen, of which the militia consist, and containing from three hundred to fifteen hundred men. If the several States had the responsibility of this power, the unmilitary arrangement of eight regiments to a brigade, and of seven brigades, instead of two, to a division, would not be seen in any. All this deformity arises from the operation of the existing laws, defeating the design of those who granted the power to the National Government, for the sake of ensuring a perfect uniformity of organization.

It can provide arms and equipments for both officers and soldiers, and authorize the delivery of colors and musical instruments from the national armories. Thus it would relieve those whose expenses and burdens are heavy and unequal, instead of attempting to impose on them an obligation which it has not the constitutional power to enforce. It is true, that Congress has power to provide arms and equipments for the militia, but its authority to require the colors to be furnished at the expense of the field officers, and the musical instruments by the company officers, will be considered as vain as it would be for it to exact from those holding civil offices, under State authority, pecuniary, or other grants, proportioned to their elevation, and its means of enforcing the penalties of disobedience would be no greater upon the military than the civil

officers. The same observation may be applied to uniforming the militia, which is not only not one of the ceded powers, but is one which can both more economically and properly be exercised by the States, who may thus establish, for each, such characteristic marks or badges, as will, when the troops of several States are together, distinguish the line of each from the other, and from the line of the army. These are attempts at legitimate legislation, which diminish the dignity of the enacting authority, and lessen the respect of those from whom submission is expected.

It can establish a system of discipline for the artillery and cavalry, as well as for the infantry.

It can provide and distribute books of instruction to the officers, and thus secure an uniformity in the words of command, of exercise, and manœuvres, throughout the Union ; and, as the power of Congress to compel the attendance of militia officers at drills, for instruction, is not generally admitted, if it will furnish instructers to such of the States as choose to avail themselves of the advantage furnished, it need not be questioned that the opportunity will be embraced to the extent of the provision.

It can provide for the appointment of Aids de Camps to the Commander in Chief of the several States, and other necessary officers, and fix the rank of some whose appointment is now provided for.

It can more accurately define the mode of arming the several corps, and make some improvement in the selection of arms to be used.

It can revise the provision for inspecting the troops which is insufficient, and for returning them, which is not only fixed at an inconvenient period for the use of the Government, but is incomplete also in its details.

It can provide rules for the police of the militia, and add many necessary practical regulations.

It can relieve the elder class of those who are now enrolled, from duty in time of peace: for it certainly cannot be necessary to require so great a proportion of the whole to be enrolled, as was expedient when the population, upon the same territory, was about one-third the present number, and our other means of defence incomparably less. But if there are any particular parts of the country, the character of whose population requires the keeping up a large military force in peace as well as war, the power can safely be left with the States to make additional enrolments, it being fairly to be presumed, that no State will impose a burden on its citizens, which its own peculiar exigencies do not require.

Above all, it can take back to its own exercise the power of exemption, which, under the State authorities, has been

used more destructively to the spirit of the militia, than even to its numerical force.

It can also do much, in other ways, to encourage the ambition of the officers and the pride of the soldiers, so indispensable to the preservation of the system in any degree of respectability, and no measure would be more likely to have this tendency, and produce the conviction that the General Government intended to extend its protection to the militia, than the appointment of a Staff Officer, to represent their interest, and become the official organ of their communications, at the seat of the National Government.

One of the most immediate and best effects of these measures will be to inform the public mind, which, not being obliged to reflect on principles that it is not called on to apply, is now too much influenced by the interested sentiments of those who proclaim a privilege a burden, and make individual hardships national calamities. The patronage of the Government will undeceive the ignorant, disarm the cunning, and cause the thinking part of the community to reflect on the advantages, in a republican Government, of placing arms in the hands of the whole people, and of training them to their use.—Thus public opinion, the power with which the laws in all Governments must ultimately accord, and whose effects, on those which are free, are almost immediate, will be enlightened. Let a change in the militia system be decreed by public sentiment, (and it surely will be, when a clear perception of the best mode of effecting it is entertained,) and it matters not whether the powers to accomplish it belong, in whole, or in part, to the State, or the United States; whether they be coordinate, dependent, or contingent, their exercise will be commanded. Such patronage will make the militia service respectable, and its offices desirable. Consequently men of higher attainments will be found in authority, an interest felt in the institution, and an influence created in the community, which will add much to the dignity and utility of the institution in peace, and to its strength in war. But the States alone can do nothing. The United States must begin the grand work of militia reform. The States have a right to demand it at their hands. The militia is their force, the service of which they have authorized the United States to use on certain occasions, and as these are the most important of any in which it will be called to act, they have yielded to that Government the important powers to organize and arm it, and to establish its discipline. Certainly this would never have been done, but under the full belief that those powers would be exercised; but having ceded them, the States may with great propriety claim their execution, in fulfilment of the implied obligation, which was the consideration of the grant, that thereby the force employed should be fitted for the service for which it is destined.

It is not herein intended to impute to the national councils a want of disposition to comply with their obligations. The cause of the evil does not arise from this source, but rather from the want of a satifactory conviction in their mind that the remedies which have been proposed would answer their design; nor, by the remark, that, by the adoption of measures for the improvement of the militia such as have been suggested, or others which shall effect the same objects, the poorer class of citizens will be relieved, do we wish to be understood as claiming for the poor *exclusive benefits:* our only wish is to relieve them from *exclusive hardships.* It is not to be denied, that the efficient militia is, in a great degree, composed of such as have not influence enough to obtain any of the numerous exempting offices, or pecuniary means to pay the forfeitures of non-compliance with legal requisitions. The claim we make, therefore, is one of justice to them not only, but it is one that can be allowed without injustice to others; and, until it can be shown why those who fill the ranks of the militia, those, in fact, who do the work, why they should be obliged to provide arms for the defence of the whole, without aid from any: why they should spend their time, without remuneration or other marks of consideration from those who share the advantage: furnish their own ammunition and rations, and pay the expenses of assembling, without assistance from their exempted and wealthier neighbors, whose property is a principal object of defence; the claim will continue to be urged on the strong ground of justice and equality.

It is believed that there is no department of the Government that deserves more attention than the militia: none in which the defects of the system are more apparent; none which is more susceptible of improvement; none about which public sentiment is more divided; none which is attended with more extraneous difficulties; but all of which may be traced to the want of those facts, and that information which, in all affairs, is indispensable to enlightened reform. It is not expected that all these difficulties can be removed at once. But, let the inquiry be commenced, and the subject examined; let the habits and interests of the different sections of the Union be consulted; let the powers granted and those reserved by the States be considered; let amendments be the result of knowledge; let facts be collected, information communicated, and public sentiment enlightened, and reformation will surely follow.

This will not be an untried experiment. Its utility has been tested, and its result is exhibited in those States where the concerns of the militia are systematically conducted according to the provisions of their Legislatures requiring it. How much more necessary it is that the President should have the advantage which would result from the establishment of a similar de-

partment at the seat of the Government of the Union, the comparative extent of his authority sufficiently demonstrates.

But though the laws for the regulation and government of the militia are defective, unequal, and oppressive, the principles upon which the system is founded are correct. They have been tested by experience, and carried into operation in the incomplete mode which is at present adopted, have already produced, as we often hear it remarked, a militia which Europe does not exhibit. But does it satisfy us, that those who have as much to fear as we have to hope from such an institution, have not brought it to the same degree of perfection as ourselves? Will the independent People of America, who place their chief military and their whole civil dependence on this force, be satisfied with having a militia which is only, comparatively, better than that of Governments which resort to it always with fear, and never place arms in the hands of the People but when the invader is at hand? The possession of muskets by all the able bodied men of a country, gives to them that perfect sense of their own freedom, which causes each, in his own castle, to stand, like a sentinel, watching his liberty. "If France had such a militia," said a late distinguished visiter, when he received the salute of six thousand of them, "she would have a free Government." The militia is the preserving power of republicanism. What would dissolve arbitrary governments, confirms and strengthens the free. It can hardly be believed that a community which, against all existing precedents, had the intelligence to found a system of self-government upon the basis of original equality of privilege and power, and the virtue to maintain it, to the delight of the philanthropist, and the fear of the selfish and powerful, will ever forget that a self-depending must always be a self-defending power. Those who have set the world an example of unequalled wisdom in their civil institutions, derive too much pride and gratification from them to neglect the means of their preservation.

HINTS FOR A MILITARY AND NAVAL PROVIDENT SOCIETY.

The utility and expediency of provident societies, having in view the permanent support of families otherwise dependent upon the lives of their natural protectors, have been so thoroughly tested by experience, and their advantages so generally felt and acknowledged, that argument upon the subject

would be superfluous. Within the last twenty years, almost every class of our citizens, actuated by a laudable care for the future, have enrolled themselves in some such society; and families who would have been thrown, by the death of a husband, father, or brother, upon the cold and reluctant charities of the world, have been thus saved from want, and the still greater misery of dependence. It has struck us as somewhat surprising, that our military and naval officers have hitherto seemed inattentive to the good example set them, and that nothing has been attempted, in their behalf, towards the institution of a similar society, to embrace all ranks of both services. Perhaps this apparent indifference, in an affair which has excited so much interest in other classes, may be the mere result of accident, and that nothing more is wanted than the formal proposition of a plan for a *Military and Naval Provident Society*, to ensure its general adoption. Our elder officers, both in the army and navy, are for the most part in easy circumstances, if not rich; these, having no fears for the future welfare of the families they may leave behind them, have, of course, nothing to call their attention to the advantages of such an institution; while the younger portion of them, from natural diffidence, or the habit of subordination, accustomed to act only on the suggestion, advice, or command, of their superiors, in this as in other things wait for their first motion, either by precept or example. Whatever may be the reason that no proposition, for an united action to this purpose, has yet been submitted to the two services, we are disposed to believe, that a rightly organized society would be attended with incalculable benefits; and that a plan, properly devised and matured, would meet with the general, if not universal, concurrence of our officers, of every degree. It is with no presumptuous confidence, that we shall be able to suggest an unobjectionable plan for the formation of such a society, that we have now trespassed upon the attention of our readers, but because we regard the subject as one of infinite importance, and believe that we perform a duty properly belonging to the relation we have assumed, in introducing it to the consideration of our patrons.

In looking over the very entertaining and instructive numbers of the "United Service Journal," of Great Britain, in the hope of finding something that might serve us as a model, or at least furnish some useful hints towards the object in view, we have been disappointed at seeing only a few meagre outlines, scarcely intelligible to those not acquainted with the peculiarities of the British service, and some ill digested calculations wholly inapplicable to the nature of our laws and institutions. These are from correspondents of the Journal referred to, and their suggestions seem rather to have been discouraged than enforced by the remarks of the editor. We acknowledge ourselves

indebted, however, to these papers, for one or two hints, which we shall endeavour to turn to use.

From a calculation, which approximates sufficiently near to the truth for the purposes intended, we find that there are somewhat more than 2,000, commissioned and warrant, officers in the army and navy, whose average monthly pay is about 35 dollars, exclusive of the rations. Were each individual, therefore, to give *one month's* pay, (reserving the rations for his subsistence during that month,) towards the creation of a general subscription fund, the aggregate sum raised would be about 70,000 dollars. The addition to this of an annual subscription of one fourth, or *one week's* pay of each officer, and the interest that would be produced in a compound ratio by the judicious management of the fund, would give, at the end of five years, a capital of (nearly) 175,000 dollars.

We have proposed that the fund should remain untouched for the period of five years, because the largest sum which will have been paid by any officer before the end of that time, would be insufficient for the support of a single individual for a year; and because this mode of accumulating capital is less burdensome upon the officers, than it would be to augment the amount of subscriptions in the first instance.

The average number of yearly deaths among the officers of the army and navy, may be estimated at about one in fifty or sixty. But as the places of those who die are speedily filled by new appointments, and as every young officer will naturally feel desirous to acquire, as early as possible, the right of membership in a society which embraces so many of his comrades and superiors, it is not probable that the amount of annual subscriptions will be much diminished from this cause.

It is not unreasonable to suppose, that when the society shall be once established upon a solid and permanent foundation, it will be aided by donations from wealthy individuals of other classes, and by the general government. But without reference to these probabilities, let us take the result of the calculations given above. At the end of five years, the capital of the Society would be 175,000 dollars. The regular interest of this sum, together with the amount of annual subscriptions, would enable the Society to pay, for ever thereafter, to the families of those entitled to the benefits of the institution, the following rates of annuities:—

	per annum.
To the widows or children of general officers of the army, and post captains of five years and upwards, ...	$1,000 00
To the widows or children of post captains under five years, colonels and lieutenant colonels, ...	750 00
To the widows or children of all other commissioned officers, .	500 00
To the widows or children of all warrant officers, ...	300 00

Supposing the average yearly deaths to be as we have stated it, one in fifty, at the commencement of the sixth year there would be to be paid of these annuities—

Of the first class 3, at	$1,000	$3,000 00
Of the second class 5, at	750	3,750 00
Of the third class 17, at	500	8,500 00
Of the fourth class 18, at	300	5,400 00

Making an aggregate of $ 20,650, and leaving a balance of interest and annual subscriptions, of $7,350 to be added to the next year's capital.

Whenever it happens that the subscribing officer shall be killed in action, the annuity to his family might be doubled.

In order to form the Society, it will be absolutely necessary that some one or more of the individuals should take upon themselves the trouble of *beginning*. In every ship, and at every station, naval and military, let the officer who has most leisure, draw up some plan for a general subscription, no matter in what form, and present it to every individual of his brother officers for their signatures, binding them to pay into the hands of a Cashier or Treasurer, whenever the Society shall be organized, the amount of one month's pay exclusive of rations, and annually thereafter one fourth of a month's pay. In the course of a short time, and with very little trouble, all who are disposed to subscribe will have had the opportunity afforded them of doing so, and the subscribers may proceed to the selection of a committee, who should be empowered to draw up a few plain and simple articles of association, and in the name of the whole to petition Congress for an act of incorporation.

The affairs of the Society should be conducted by a Board of Directors, composed of the Secretaries of War and the Navy, *ex officio*, and twenty-three individuals to be chosen annually by the subscribers from their own number. In this Board should be vested the power of appointing their own presiding officer, a Secretary, Cashier, and Bookkeeper; and as neither of these officers ought to be entitled to vote on any question touching the investment, or other disposition, of the funds, the selection of them need not be confined to the Society, but may be made, perhaps with greater advantage, from the community at large.

The votes of a majority of the whole number of Directors, including the Secretaries of War and the Navy, should be necessary to determine all questions relating to the investment of the capital; but where the two Secretaries do not concur on any question, then two thirds of the whole number of Directors should be required to carry the proposition against the dissentient Secretary.

The articles of association, laws, or constitution of the So-

ciety, should, as far as possible prescribe, all that relates to annuities—their commencement, amount, and duration. That is to say, no annuity ought to accrue to the widow or children of a deceased officer who shall not have been at least five years a subscriber to the fund. The amount of the annuity ought in no instance to exceed a given scale. It ought to continue during the life of the widow: if there are children, and the widow should take another husband, then the annuity should be paid to trustees, appointed by the directors, for the exclusive benefit of such children. Annuities to children, where there is no widow, or where the widow marries again, should be continued, to females until they reach the age of eighteen, unless previously married, in which case they should then cease, and to males, until they reach the age of sixteen years.

But there are many points touching the disposal of annuities, which must of necessity be left to the prudence, discretion, and judgment of the directors. For example, where it is known to the board, that a deceased subscriber has left an unencumbered estate, fully adequate to the support of his surviving family, it would be a manifest waste of the funds to grant the annuity. Or where there is a certain, known income, but less than the apportionment on the scale of annuities, the annuity granted should be of such amount only as to make up the deficiency. Where an unmarried subscriber dies, leaving a widowed mother, or brothers and sisters under the ages specified, the annuity should be granted in the same manner as in the case of widow or children.

Cases may occur, where the immediate advance of a small sum to the widow or children, or others entitled to be placed on the annuity list, may be necessary to their present comfort. This the directors should have power to determine, at their discretion, and the sum so advanced should be considered as a gratuity, not to be charged against the regular payments, as they become due, of the annuity; but no such gratuity should ever exceed the amount of half a year's annuity, in the class to which the annuitants may belong.

If any officer, after becoming a member of the Society, should refuse or neglect to pay his annual contribution, he should forfeit all right to its benefits; but members, who may be detained on distant service for more than a year, may be permitted at any subsequent time to recover their rights, by the payment of the whole amount of subscriptions due. In like manner, if a member, not in arrear at the time of his departure on distant service, should die while absent, leaving one or more years' subscription due, it ought not to deprive his surviving family of their right to an annuity; but in this case, the amount of subscription due, should be deducted from the first payment of the annuity.

Officers, who leave the service, may continue to be members of the Society, so long as they continue to pay the same amount of annual subscription which they paid while in the service.

These suggestions, we trust, will be at least sufficient to invite the attention of our officers to a subject of so much importance to the future welfare of their families; and whether our hints may be regarded as worthy to form the groundwork of the association proposed or not, if they should lead to the adoption of any plan, having the same object in view, we shall feel that these few pages have not been written in vain.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

PRIVATE ARMED SHIP MARQUIS LAFAYETTE.

A narrative of the escape and cruises of the private armed ship Marquis Lafayette, written by John Cowper, Esq. of Norfolk, Va. at the request of one of the senior officers of our Navy, who was intimately acquainted with Capt. Meredith and several of the other officers. Amongst them, the late Capt. Christopher Thompkins, Col. George Wray, and Mr. Ross Mitchell, the pilot, all of whom were from Hampton, Virginia.

This gallant ship was frigate built, and sailed fast. The circumstances narrated by Mr. Cowper, who was a volunteer on board of her, are still familiar to those who have any distinct recollection of the transactions of those days, and are exemplary proofs of what may be accomplished by perseverance, judgment, and bravery.

Norfolk, April 6th, 1833.

Dear Sir:

I have often promised you that I would put on paper the circumstances attending the remarkable escape of the private armed ship Marquis Lafayette, from Nansemond river, through Hampton Roads, during the revolutionary war. This promise I shall now redeem, as far as some memoranda, which, by accident, I recently found, and memory will permit. The circumstances are yet very strongly impressed on my mind, having occurred at a period of my life, when very strong impressions are made; besides which, I was deeply interested in many ways, in the result of an attempt deemed so very difficult, if not impossible, at the time it was undertaken.

The ship Marquis Lafayette was owned by my father and his two brothers, trading as merchants, under the firm of Wills Cowper & Co., and residing near Suffolk, that town having been destroyed by the enemy in the year 1779. This ship was commanded by Captain Joseph Meredith, and was calculated

to carry 26 guns, including 6 quarter deck guns; but at the time alluded to, mounted only 12 guns, six pounders, and was manned with only 40 persons of all descriptions.

There was something so extraordinary in the fortunes of this ship, that although not connected with her escape, may not be deemed to be without interest. She was built within half a mile of Suffolk, and every preparation for launching her was made, to be carried into execution the next day, when an express arrived, stating the arrival in Hampton Roads of a British fleet. This was about the middle or latter part of October, 1780. It proved to be a fleet of ships of war and transports, having on board an army under the command of Major General Leslie. The main army landed without a moment's delay, and took possession of Portsmouth, while two detachments were sent up Nansemond river, one landing on the south side of the river, and the other on the north side, intending to unite (as they afterwards did) at Suffolk. The owners of this ship, apprized of the approach of the enemy, hastened their preparations for launching, to prevent her being burned on the stocks. They completed their operations of launching, and had her scuttled and sunk in about eighteen feet water, only about half an hour before the detachment that landed on the south side of Nansemond river arrived at Suffolk. Whether from the haste in sinking it was imperfectly done, is not known; but in a very few hours she was raised, and subsequently taken down to Portsmouth. Fortunately her sails and rigging had been removed to about seven miles from Suffolk. On the night of the same day on which she was removed, the detachment that landed on the north side, came to the place where the sails, rigging, &c. were stored, and remained nearly half a day, but did not open the house where they were stored.

On the arrival of the ship at Portsmouth, preparations were made to fit her out and send her to New York; but at this moment, General Leslie received orders to evacuate Virginia without delay, which he did; and the ship was again sunk at Gosport. The owners lost no time in raising her, and taking her up Nansemond river. They had nearly prepared for sea, when about the latter end of December, or early in January, Arnold arrived in Virginia, and was subsequently followed by General Philips, and the State permanently invaded; in addition to which, Lord Cornwallis was expected in Virginia.

It was at this juncture that Captain Meredith took command, and prepared for the enterprise in which he afterwards succeeded. Those who know what situation the country was in at that time, will appreciate the difficulties which presented themselves to such an undertaking. The cavalry and infantry of the enemy were daily, and the artillery occasionally, on the shores of the Nansemond, as high up as the head waters. It

was most dangerous to remain a moment in the narrow waters, and accordingly the ship was moved near the mouth of the river, where it is wide; but this movement brought her in full view of the enemy's ships. The entrance of Nansemond river is extremely difficult, and it was believed that the enemy had not a pilot, who could bring a ship of sufficient force to attack this ship into that river. They did not attempt it, but sent some boats in the night, which were discovered, and retreated without making the attempt.

In this situation the ship remained a long time, until about the 1st of May, 1781. This delay arose from the difficulty to procure seamen to navigate her, should we succeed in putting her to sea. At length, however, they were procured, and about this time, the movements of the enemy indicated that the delay of one night might render all further attempts abortive. To my best recollection, it was on the second or third of May that it was decided that on that night the attempt should be made, although the moon was advanced in her second quarter. In the morning Captain Meredith, with one of the owners, accompanied by a skilful Hampton pilot, named Ross Mitchell, went down in the ship's barge to reconnoitre the position of the enemy's ships. They were distributed nearly as follows: One ship of the line, a frigate, and a sloop of war lay under Newport Noose; two frigates and two sloops lay off Hampton bar, about half a mile from each other; three vessels of war were at the entrance of Elizabeth river, near Seawell's point; and several vessels of war, of what description or number I do not now remember, were near Old Point Comfort. The transports and merchant vessels, about eighty to one hundred, were distributed in different parts of the road, and from whom nothing was to be apprehended, unless those higher up should give notice of our approach; which was also to be apprehended from the ships under Newport Noose. It ought to have been stated, that the orders were issued by Captain Meredith in the morning, before he went down to the Roads. All spirits were forbidden to be used on that day. After entering Hampton Roads, the duty of the ship was to be carried on in a tone so low as not to be heard out of the ship. The guns to be loaded, but not to be fired without special order, even if we were fired into. Captain Meredith stated to his officers, that by not returning the fire of the enemy, we might pass for one of their own ships, and it might cease; but if we fired, our character could not be mistaken. He further stated, that upon entering the Roads, almost a dead silence must be observed. His plan was to get among the transports, as near to them as possible, and to keep one or more of them between him and the ships of war.

All things being ready at dark, we got under way, with the ebb tide, and a moderate breeze at about w.n.w. and proceed-

ed down. Having cleared the river the road pilot took charge, and a boat was ready to take off the river pilot, when the wind became light, and in a short time it was calm. This was an awful moment—to return was impossible, on account of the tide—nothing remained but to anchor. Captain Meredith was pacing the quarter deck, and with much anxiety looking to the north west, when an officer came and said that all was ready to let go, and that the pilot notified that it must be done immediately, as the ship could not be commanded. Orders were given to let go the anchor, when Captain Meredith called out "stop!" I was near to him and heard him exclaim, "I see the cloud from whence we shall have a wind." At this moment the higher sails began to swell, the top-sails bent, and immediately spread themselves to the breeze. Those who know how a north west wind comes on, will know what was the effect.

We now entered fully into the roads. The first ships we passed were those under Newport Noose; we saw them very distinctly when the clouds did not obscure the moon. They probably did not see us, as they gave no signal to the ships below. We now approached the frigate that was highest up, and passed her at the distance of a quarter of a mile. We soon got among the transports, passing them most rapidly, and often so near as to hear the conversation on board. We were never hailed by one. It may be well imagined that with a strong ebb tide—wind sufficient—a fast sailing ship—a press of sail—and a smooth water—there was little time for observation; and I am certain that, by the time a gun could have been brought to bear, we should have been out of sight. The great danger was from notice being given by the ships above to those below.

At length we passed the ships near Old Point Comfort, and began to feel easy, when we approached a very large ship at anchor, near Willoughby's Point. She hailed us, but no answer was given; and what she was we never knew—probably some ship that had come in that afternoon, and anchored upon the making of the ebb tide.

A very short time elapsed before we cleared Cape Henry, and after a sound sleep I found myself on blue water; and I was as much rejoiced as I had ever been, on my return to port after a long voyage. Escaped from an enemy that was gathering round us every day, and by whose grasp we must have been shortly seized, the ocean was hailed as our deliverer.

These are the material facts of an escape that was thought miraculous at the time, but to me it appears to have been less so than I could have supposed. The rapidity of the ship's movement when under way was such, that it was impossible to have stopped her, unless it was known that she was on the way down; and it is surprising that the enemy's ships did not

keep a better look out. My father, who was a prisoner in Norfolk at the time, told me that the enemy had not supposed the attempt would be made on a moonlight night—nor would it have been made but from pressing necessity. The boldness of the enterprize made the enemy less vigilant.

This narrative may shew to those in difficulty, that success is one half secured, when we are determined on a bold enterprize. Placed in the circumstances in which Captain Meredith and the owners were, from the situation of the country, many persons would have saved the materials and equipments, and abandoned the hull.

As the history of this ship, to her final end, has excited an interest with you, although not important, I will resume.

After getting to sea, Captain Meredith decided to get into the first port, and accordingly he made for the Delaware, and early in the morning made land a little to the south of Cape Henlopen. Upon coming up with that Cape, we saw a large British frigate (as supposed) at anchor, who was soon under way, in chase of us. By four o'clock, P. M. she gave up the chase, and we pursued our way for Rhode Island, where we arrived without accident.

At Rhode Island the ship was completely armed and fitted with 18 guns—6 pounders—on the battery, and 6 fours on the quarter deck, and 140 men, with which she proceeded on a cruise off the port of Charlestown, (as then called) S. C. which was occupied by the British. Within four miles of the bar, we captured a British brig of 400 tons, with a cargo of dry goods, worth, at that time, in the United States 350,000 dollars; and on the same day, captured two other vessels of no great value, burned one, and with the brig and the other, proceeded for Rhode Island.

Our movements had not passed without notice by the enemy. We boarded a Flag the next morning, from whom we learned, that two frigates and two sloops of war passed the bar, in the afternoon of the same day we disappeared. On the second morning, some time before day, saw a large ship under the lee; Captain Meredith hailed the prizes, and ordered them to haul to the eastward, and proceed according to their instructions in case of separation.

For the safety of his own ship Captain M. had no fear, from her superior sailing; but feared for his rich prize, a very dull sailer. He practised a manœuvre which, I think, succeeded in preventing the enemy from knowing our size; for, had we presented the broadside, it would have shewn him the distance between the masts; but we bore down upon him. There is reason to believe that we saw this vessel before we were seen, as it was nearly three quarters of an hour after we parted with our

prizes, before any movement was discovered by the enemy. Day was now breaking. The vessel was a large frigate, and was preparing for action. In the mean time, every thing on board our ship was prepared to haul on a wind for running. As the morning advanced, we could no longer practice the imposition, and hauled our wind. The chace then commenced; our prizes were three or four miles to the eastward; the enemy either did not notice them, or did not care for them. Our enemy proved to be a better sailer than we expected; for, after getting into our wake—which Captain M. permitted, as our ship to do her best required the wind a little free—she kept even with us, or pretty nearly so, which induced us to go more large; but at that moment we made another ship to leeward, which it would be difficult to pass, as we were then standing. The ship astern kept way with us, and it was thought would have come up with us, if we hauled upon a wind to avoid the ship to leeward. Captain M. was always prompt in his decision, and determined to pass the ship to leeward, even if exposed to a broadside or two. This ship proved a very inferior sailer to her consort, and though she was almost in our path, she only gave us one fire from her broadside, and at the same time her consort opened upon us astern. Their fire did us little damage, and we were soon relieved from the ship last seen, who bore away, leaving us to her consort, who kept up the chase until four o'clock P. M. when, for the first time, we began to feel confident of our superior sailing. At sun down she gave up the chase. Next morning, we boarded another cartel, and from the prisoners we learned, that the ships that had chased us were the Blonde and the Carysfort; the former a very fast ship.

After returning to Rhode Island, Captain Mere*dith* proceeded on another cruise, which was cut very short by the following circumstances. Captain M. determined to look into the Chesapeake, and then proceed to Charleston and Savannah. On the 5th of September, 1781, being off Hogg Island, stood in to the south, and about meridian saw a fleet ahead, and to leeward; upon standing on, perceived it was a fleet of British ships of war, formed into a line of battle. Presently we saw a French fleet beating out of the Capes of Virginia. About 3 or 4 o'clock an action commenced. These were the fleets of De Grasse and Graves. About sun down, the French bore away for the Capes. It was this naval action, and the arrival of the Rhode Island squadron, which we also saw going in, that put an end to the hopes of Lord Cornwallis at York. The French, by the junction of D' Barras, from Rhode Island, with De Grasse, gave them a superiority which the British, in those seas, dared not face. All this time the British were between us and our friends.

About dark we hauled off to the eastward, wind light, and

so continued until daylight; when we saw two frigates, about two miles to leeward and abreast of us. Captain Meredith immediately tacked ship to the westward. It may be proper here to state, that after our return to Rhode Island, under the impression that our ship required more sail, a change took place in sparring her. The foremast was sprung at the head, in the early part of last cruise in chase; it was well fished, and answered very well; but it was taken out, the mainmast put in for a foremast, and a new mainmast procured. It is astonishing how these changes affected the sailing of the ship; and the very day we made the fleets, Captain M. had decided to return to Rhode Island, and take his old Virginia mast again. It is said that sharp vessels are easily put out of trim; and therefore, when they are found to sail *well*, beating every thing they meet, it is not wise to *try* to make them sail better.

Captain Meredith was afraid of a long chase, and tacked to the westward, being about twelve leagues from the land. The chase commenced, and we were in great danger, and must have been taken, if the headmost frigate had not so very frequently rounded to, in order to give her broadside. This she was induced to do by our nearing the land. Captain M. now consulted his pilot, Ross Mitchell of Hampton, upon the soundings, and to know if he could anchor him, so as to be out of close gunshot of the frigate. He said he could. The necessary preparations were made, and the chase continued, until we got in three fathoms water, and an order was issued to let go the anchor, when the frigates hauled off, and made for the fleet. It was understood that they were the Iris and Richmond. We returned to Rhode Island, where Captain M. and the writer left her.

The old Virginia foremast was again taken in, and the mainmast replaced, when the ship sailed as at first; which should be a caution to innovators.

She made another successful cruise under Captain Munroe, and had a severe engagement with a Liverpool Letter of Marque, of 16 nine pounders and 87 men, which she captured. Captain Munroe received a wound which obliged him to leave the ship, and from which he never recovered, though he lived several years after.

The Marquis returned to Rhode Island, and was ordered to Virginia (to take a cargo of tobacco, for France,) to be coppered, which in those days could not be well done here. She was now drawing to a premature death. Under an indiscreet commander, a little to the southward of Cape Henry, she was chased by a frigate, from whom she was getting away fast, when another frigate was discovered, shaping her course to cut the Marquis off from Cape Henry. The Virginia officers that remained, assured the commander that they could round the

Cape, without the danger of more than one or two broadsides at most, and perhaps without one. He was not a Meredith, but ordered the helm to be put up, and run this gallant, enterprising little ship ashore; and thus, after so many hair-breadth escapes from danger, she was lost, when the danger existed only in apprehension.

I have written this in great haste, and with other business before me, requiring immediate attention.

Very respectfully,

Dear Sir, Yours,

J. C.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

ON POPULAR PREJUDICES AGAINST MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.

In the progress of Society and Government, the pursuits of men have multiplied, and successive discoveries in the arts, and in moral and physical science, have given them new directions, and called forth new energies. The great mass, constituting a people or nation, has been divided and subdivided into classes, or small communities, each part deriving new power from the separation, by the perfection of the objects of its own branch of labor, and the consequent additional wealth flowing from it. Civilization has called for new institutions, which formerly would have been deemed selfish and unimportant; institutions, which, although not seen as the immediate agents to ensure a required result, are nevertheless necessary, like the great wheels, which check and regulate the movements of the other parts of the machinery. Whilst civilization has tended to perfect the social ties, which bind together individuals and small bodies of men, it has also imposed some inconveniences, by the burthen of expense and restrictions of natural freedom, necessary for its progress; inconveniences, however, which, when surveyed with a philosophic temper, are absolute benefits in comparison with the previous state of mutual depredation and uncontrollable confusion. Thus all governments have endeavored to vest themselves with power, according to the character of their people, and the knowledge of the age; power which might be used as a defence against foreign foes, or as the means of ensuring domestic tranquillity; but the natural egotism of man's disposition makes him jealous of the pow-

er of individuals and of governments, to which he is subject; and every law which confirms the one or creates the other, is viewed with an intent and suspicious scrutiny. Among the most prominent and necessary means of security looked to by all governments, is the organization of military force, which has called forth more denunciation, engendered more suspicion, and been the object of more reproach and envious abuse, than any other establishment whatever; serving at all times as a theme for the cant eloquence of sycophantic demagogues, or the monotonous querulousness of leaden-brained stupidity. Protection and obligation are correlative terms, and the first cannot be ensured, without the observance of the second. Power is necessary for the one, and the consequence of the other, and all state power is fleeting and inefficient, without a character which depends upon organization. Be it physical power, which displays itself in the order and gorgeousness of military array; or be it moral power, which is acknowledged in the obedience rendered to judicial mandates, the principle which operates upon the mind is the same; authority combined with order, carries with it the idea of right. Since the era of modern history, during which standing armies were established, prejudices have been rife against them; while their utility is acknowledged, they are continually decried, and danger from them constantly foreseen. The reasons at first for these prejudices were, no doubt, sufficient. The tyranny of feudal bondage had not passed away; and soldiers were nothing more, for a great length of time, than the retainers of a prince, or the minions of a successful general. While, on the one hand, they secured the territories of their country, and were ever in a state of preparation at less expense of money and sacrifice of labor, so they were, on the other, a ready and active means of oppression.—But the social and political state of the world is now changed; yet the consequences of the system of other days is clung to, although the causes themselves have long since ceased to exist. It is thus that prejudices against military establishments are nourished by the recollection of the character of past times, which no reason or reflection can acknowledge as similar to that of the present.

It has been said, that the return of Napoleon from Elba afforded proof of the danger and uncertainty of standing armies; but the causes operating upon the minds of the military at that epoch must be considered. Louis XVIII. had violated the pledges under which the Bourbon dynasty was restored. The public mind was agitated by the question of the public domains, in which the interest of millions was mingled, and whereby irremediable injustice would have been committed. The emigrants started points of rank and precedence, which were supported, though not openly, by the monarch; then it was that the re-

turn of Napoleon gave a new impulse to the nation; and is it to be thought strange that, under such circumstances, the citizens, among whom were the army, should oppose themselves to the dictum of an individual, though that individual happened to be a king? The army in particular were swayed by the recollection of an hundred battles and victories, of toils and dangers, of pain and sacrifices, in behalf of France, and the millions united with them, were they to be subdued by the absurd dogma of divine right? as if a nation of enlightened and cultivated men could be bequeathed as the inheritance of a single person, without regarding it as a political privilege subject to the will of the people themselves? Thus, instead of being an effort to trample upon the laws, it was a manifestation of honorable pride, and love of liberty; a glorious struggle to break forever the chains and manacles of feudal bondage. After a bloody and disastrous campaign, they were driven back upon their capital by the united armies of Europe, that capital taken, and its population subjected to military exaction. Misfortunes had not only weakened their forces, but enfeebled the loyalty and truth of some of their commanders; a striking and humiliating proof of which was given in the defection of Marshal Marmont, who estimating his *bâton* as more valuable than his honor, delivered his division prisoners of war, under the alleged provisions of a convention. The national feeling of chivalrous pride was aroused; national honor, so sedulously cultivated by the military community, and by them given to the people at large, is reflected back with accumulated power and brilliancy, animated every bosom; and France stood like a supplicant, appealing to her own children against the *degradation* of coercion by foreign power, the dismemberment of her empire, and the dissipation of her wealth; or, if she could not triumph, to be permitted at least, like the fated Roman, to die with decency even at the feet of her relentless foes. It has also been customary to cite, in support of this popular prejudice, the history of the Prætorian Bands, and that of the Janisaries of the Turkish Empire. It should have been recollected, that the first had none of the attributes of a standing army except the arms they bore; they were but an armed force, who rose, it is true, superior to the other parts of a broken empire, and acted as the personal adherents of an Emperor, but acknowledged no government. They sold the throne and reclaimed it as they pleased, and stood in the same relation to their head, as a banditti do to their chief. For the other, there is no shadow of analogy. The condition of the Janisaries to the head of the Turkish Empire, was that of master and slave; and if the latter sometimes exacted conditions, it showed only as the manifestation of an inherent desire for a reasonable degree of liberty; proving, that if human nature has a uniform bent towards

freedom, human laws are often too strong to permit the attainment of the object. Such is the nature of the facts to which reference is made, to support the prejudices of which we speak. History, however, has other events recorded, which have a tendency of another character, and are quite as numerous as those of the first class.

The sequel of the revolution caused by the return of Napoleon in 1814, was the revolution of 1830, which makes manifest how far the people themselves, unsupported by the military part of the population, can effect the object of their wishes. If the army in 1814 took a leading part, it was because the empire was surrounded and threatened by hostile armies, and was of itself the principal bulwark against the Bourbon family. But how differently were they situated, and how different was their part, in the drama of 1830. At peace with every power of Europe, fearing no aggression of territory by a foe, the army was but a passive body, and but a small part; soldiers from another country offered resistance, not so much to support the government, as to defend the persons of the royal family. In recurring to this event, we seize with pleasure the opportunity to pay a slight tribute of respect to the memory of the Swiss Guards. Notions of military honor, exalted as they may sometimes appear, when contrasted with our judgment of the necessity of doubtful enterprizes or of desperate resistance, are nevertheless founded upon sentiments which shed a lustre upon human nature. They occupy the same place in the opinions of their adherents, as common-place honesty and integrity do in the minds of those pursuing the more quiet road of civil life; and are alike, in the consequences of conduct, the fountain of truth and support of virtue. It is from the force of such considerations, that we indulge a sympathy for the fate of those brave men; and however mistaken they may have been in their political attachments, yet the nature of their engagements to the royal family was such, that from their sense of truth and duty, they must ever be considered as victims of popular fury, and a noble sacrifice to fidelity and honor.

At this period, the military had imbibed the sentiments and opinions of the people; and it is a striking, nay, a wonderful proof, given too by an army of France, whose government had formerly depended upon their loyalty for support, by an army enjoying the patronage and esteem of the king, how far public opinion can weaken or destroy the habits of military obedience. The opposite courses which the army took in 1814 and 1830, although based upon the same principles, and operated upon by like or similar causes, have occasioned many ungenerous and unfounded reflections upon the military character in general; but they are easily answered, and the conduct of the army on both occasions, is not only justified, but made meritorious,

[redacted] principles of patriotism and [redacted]. In this case, the [redacted] and town-meet[redacted] [redacted] against these supporters of [redacted]. The most [redacted] and threatening denun[redacted] [redacted] the same [redacted] of public sen[redacted]. [redacted] must upon the same descrip[redacted] [redacted] of the same species of [redacted]! But it may [redacted] [redacted] of the pub[redacted]. [redacted] from, and was caused by, the [redacted] in the [redacted] government, passed on by the cu[redacted] [redacted] manufactures. The spirit of [redacted], and which the French nation was animated, found [redacted] [redacted] devotion to the principles of uni[redacted]. In [redacted] case was the object of *English* [redacted]. And how is [redacted] they [redacted], that in the first case, [redacted] and [redacted] with the re-adoption and re-enforcement [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] in the [redacted] English com[redacted] would be the re-establishment of the Bourbon throne, [redacted] [redacted] in their sense. In drawing inferences [redacted] [redacted] which [redacted] communities have played in [redacted], [redacted] is none more striking than this, that [redacted] [redacted] of pursuit in such community may be, [redacted] [redacted] will be always united to the detri[redacted] [redacted] [redacted] [redacted]. If circumstances [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] to acquire monopolies, man[redacted] [redacted] protection, it will manufacturists to re[redacted] [redacted] [redacted] has been the same, adverse to [redacted] [redacted] and dangerous to public tranquility: and [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] conduct is concerned, equally the [redacted] with that of the military who should claim to exercise the [redacted] of the government by reason of their superior [redacted] to enforce it.

In the progress of government the military interests are less frequently presented for consideration than those of other bodies in the state-politic, for whose protection and encouragement the government was more immediately constituted, it follows as a consequence, that whenever the military have exerted any decided influence, either in vindication of the laws, or in efforts to trample upon them, they occupy a more prominent situation, and are longer remembered in connection with such events. Party interest, and party spirit, never fail upon such occasions, to ring the changes upon military usurpation, whether the cause of excitement be true or false; and thus the conduct of passion begets terms and phrases which, by the mere force of reiteration, finally settle down into something resembling philosophical maxims, or political truths. In the observations which we now offer, it must be understood, that they are intended to apply to armies of the present time, or

within the last century. In declaiming against the military as being dangerous to free governments, it is assuming a position which causes them to be viewed as revolutionary, a declaration which is at once opposed to history and reason. Organization, order, discipline, or habits of obedience, and all these the consequences of an enactment under the government which they serve, are directly opposed to such views. Their very occupations give them a tendency directly the reverse; their efficiency, comfort and reputation, depend upon quiet subordination. It is the rabble of cities and large towns, whose crimes and vices, and not their poverty, render them revolutionary; the law is their natural enemy, and as they are too low to have any influence in the enactment of, so they are too volatile to be affected by the abolition of any law; their wants, therefore, place them in opposition to all law. Licentiousness and disorder must always have their beginning with the lowest classes of society; habits of military discipline are too strong to be overcome by the first, or by a few efforts. It would be a difficult task to prove by well authenticated history, that revolution has been the work of military interests exclusively. In the great parties which agitate countries under such circumstances, political and selfish motives have commanded the power of the military, or levied new forces in opposition to those already existing. Revolution, rebellion, sedition, and insurrection, bring standing armies in their train of consequences, but are never the means of banishing from a country a system of military organization. When the passions of men are roused and kept in a state of excitement by conflicting interests and opposing parties, the description of force which naturally presents itself to the mind, to be used for the subjugation of a rival, is military force; all other brought into conflict, produces nothing but the cruelties and confusion of a riot, without any permanent benefit to the victorious party. A force without organization, can possess no character or efficiency, nor excite in the minds of those against whom it is directed, either fear or respect. Thus do the parties themselves, the contending civil parties of a state, give rise to the means of offence, which in more peaceable times, both are ready to condemn; when in all likelihood, if such means of acting had previously existed, popular opinion would have directed it to the right side, and have prevented all the horrors of anarchy and civil war. Under a well organized and just government, the military body is always a check upon a certain class of people, and particular individuals, who, existing in every country, are ever ready to foment violence and alarm. It supports public opinion, and is in turn supported by it, and the incentives to lawless acts, the aggression of either political or personal rights, are certainly weakened, when such a body is always ready to oppose the

wishes of those who would contemplate, by any means, the overthrow of the laws. Let then the reason of men make the proper distinction between the agitators and the conservators of the public peace. Let them look to the causes of evil, rather than cast obloquy upon the means which are brought forward to oppose them, before judgment be pronounced upon the virtue and patriotism of a body of citizens, which exists by the law, because it is necessary to the law. It requires years of commotion, of confusion, of foreign war, or domestic violence, before an army can assume a positive and decisive influence upon the fate of a country. The entire body politic must be broken by faction, and perplexed by intrigue, ere public virtue can be so weakened, public morals so debased, as to lead a nation to forget the blessings of freedom, or to be inattentive to the call of duty. Thus it is seen that popular disorders, flowing from other sources than the mere dependence upon military power, usurp the place of law, and if in the common confusion the military be mingled, it is but a dictate of nature for self-preservation which prompts them to use the means which their habits and profession have put into their hands. A soldiery is often termed licentious and discontented, because they demand the protection due to them as citizens, claiming such privileges only as every other class enjoys. Was not the exclamation, "I am a Roman citizen," in former ages, a protection and safeguard to all who appealed to it, whether their previous lives had been passed in civil, or in military pursuits? And why shall not a similar appeal at the present day cover with the panoply of the law all who make it? Justice knows no distinction of classes, or of conditions; innate in the bosom of every man, her principles at once acknowledge or reject the conclusions of his judgement. As public opinion is the basis upon which all society must rest, so is that but another name to express the universal sense of justice; when that is violated, the aggressor must submit to the retributions of the law; or by resisting, create further evils. Turn over the pages of history, showing the progress and changes of society since the formation of modern governments, and see what portion, or class of society, have taken the first step, or struck the first blow, in every revolution. It certainly will be found to be not the army. They are too far removed from the discussion of principles of government, of the interpretation of laws, of constitutional rights, of enactments having a view to domestic regulation or foreign relations, or any other and similar questions whereby the passions are agitated and the public mind disturbed, ever to be the projectors of speculative theories, or of practical change. The manner in which military men are regarded by the public, in reference to their profession alone, illustrates very forcibly the declaration of the poet, that "the evil

which men do lives after them, the good is oft interred with their bones." There is certainly no class of society which has made greater sacrifices to public sentiment, and for the public good, than that of which we speak; yet emphatically, the evil, which, under peculiar circumstances, has been supposed to arise from the interference of military bodies, has been garnered up in the memory, whilst the advantages and benefits which they have bestowed and secured, are literally forgotten! In making reference to past times for the support of these prejudices, the imagination has given all its colors, to make the picture striking and attractive. We are told of Eastern despotism supported by military power, of the violence and revenge of the predominant parties of armed men in civil wars, of the instability of a system of rule founded upon the passions; and then there is the attempt to make an application of all these monstrosities as the consequences of standing armies at the present day. How vain and futile would be such a course of reasoning, were reason itself allowed to exercise its just influence, that would teach us that despotic governments, although they may be for a time supported by armies, are not always created by them; that they follow as a matter of course, in the progress of a people from barbarism to refinement; and the first attempt at regular government must necessarily be supported by some active power. The child at first feels with fear the authority of the schoolmaster, but time wears off the uneasy disposition called forth by this new scene, and he acknowledges afterwards the propriety and necessity of the restrictions which bound him once so painfully. So is it with communities and nations; there must be time sufficient to teach and to enlighten them, ere the body itself can assume a safe and independent course; for, according to the state of knowledge, are the political institutions of the age free or arbitrary. As we have before remarked that our observations are intended to apply to free governments of the present age, we also state our belief of the perfect impossibility of any danger to follow from the maintenance of standing armies, under the government of the United States. This, not only because the mass of population must always be, under any circumstances, enormously greater than the military, but that the military are directed by the very sentiments of duty and patriotism, which sway that mass itself. From the character of the American people, and the education which every military officer receives, the army will always be peculiarly fitted to adopt and act according to the avowed expression of the nation's wishes, to be predisposed to defer to public opinion, which in every country must, to a certain degree, be potential and commanding. The influence and power of public opinion is best known when, in those things which go beyond positive law, and tangible objects of

consideration, it is enabled to restrain the violence of passion, to prevent the violation of sentiment, and the omission of those decencies of social life, which constitute the supports and charms of society. Whilst one pervading sentiment operates to enforce the enactments of human authority, it restrains those more minute actions of life, which no system of legislation can reach. If it have a form and combination of appearances, which we may deem but a fiction of the times, its foundation is nevertheless laid in positive strength. Like the fanciful and delicate ornaments of a vast temple, which lead the sight to scan their proportions, and measure from their distant elevation, the strength by the apparent slightness of the structure, we trace the connection of one with the other, until we reach the common basis of the whole in the earth itself. So public opinion, although considered but a mere abstraction, or at best an evanescent power, is, in reference to its action upon individuals, or foreign nations, found to be sanctioned by, and to rely for the enforcement of its decrees upon, physical strength. As this article is assuming a length greater than we had anticipated, we shall conclude with a few historical references, and some general observations upon the character and origin of the American army. History offers frequent illustrations of the position which we have assumed in this paper, that the popular prejudices against standing armies, as they now are constituted under free governments, are unfounded and visionary. The example of the French army, during the revolution of 1791, may be quoted; this period gave an instance how an army imbibes the prevailing sentiments of a nation, in opposition to the sovereign and government it was expected to serve, when such sovereign and government are found to be opposed to the freedom of the people. Another similar one may be adverted to, which had place at the English Restoration in 1659, when General Monk, at the head of the army, marched upon London, and drove out the Rump Parliament, dispossessing them of usurped authority and iniquitous power, and reinstating the rightful and legitimate monarch in the possession of his rights. We say rightful and legitimate monarch, not from the acknowledgment of hereditary right having a divine origin, but simply because it was the will of the people of England, that King Charles should reign. In leaving the numerous similar examples which are recorded in the histories of other countries, we will turn to one written in that of our own; one exhibiting the most exalted virtue and devoted patriotism. We refer to that period when the ARMY OF THE REVOLUTION was disbanded in 1783. After a desperate and protracted struggle, during which every hardship was braved, the severities of climate, the pains of hunger, as well as the arms of the foe; embarked in a cause, which for a long time, was by many deemed hopeless,

and serving a government without the means to minister to their wants, they nevertheless finally emerged from the contest victorious and free. It was now that peace being re-established, these men, relying upon the faith of the government to pay their arrears at a future day, quietly laid down their arms, and dispersed to seek the repose of the domestic fire-side; and to enter upon new scenes in civil employment. But how has this pledge then given by the nation been redeemed? Truth obliges us to answer, and it is with pain and humiliation, that the greater number of that band of patriot veterans have been left to go down to the grave in poverty, unrequited and forgotten! When we read the record of this last act of that army, we are moved to exclaim, "what a commentary upon the declarations and principles of the war!" The history of that period must ever be acknowledged as forming a bright page in the annals of our country, proving also, that the love of country and the will to make great sacrifices are not incompatible with the profession of arms; and that mercenary motives and licentious habits are neither the basis nor consequences of the military character. The army of the United States had its origin in peculiar circumstances. It was not of gradual growth, from the petty invasions of warlike chiefs, or nurtured by the successful encroachments upon individual rights and neighboring territory, but came forth at once at the voice of the nation, like Pallas in panoply complete. It owed its origin to the necessity of self defence, and its progress has been guided, and its sentiments fixed by public opinion. It must ever thus be governed. The officers who direct its various parts, are too strongly connected by social and political ties, to lose sight of the general interest. Its numbers can never render it dangerous, and its power and influence, its hopes and its desires, must always be subservient to, or be absorbed in, the party projects, or ruling passion of the day. The constitution of the army of the United States is unlike that of any other nation. The country is withdrawn from those scenes and changes of political power which beget strife and engender the love of military fame. The pursuits of the citizens are eminently peaceful and adverse to the profession of arms; hence the difficulty which will always be encountered in the levying and organizing of large masses, except in times of public danger. These remarks do not only apply to the past and present state of the country, but have also a prospective view, and for many years will the annals of the country confirm a like opinion.

The United States, from peculiar geographical situation, have undoubtedly less need of military establishments than any other government now existing. The nature of the institutions of the country, and the general intelligence of the people, have lent their aid to render less essential the maintenance

of such bodies; yet there are circumstances or causes emanating from political relation with foreign powers, as well as the general propriety of military preparation, which demand attention to this division of national strength, and will ever exist to make necessary the organization of such forces. The widely extended commerce of the United States is alike the source of wealth, and the most probable cause of war; claims of maritime supremacy, or of peculiar maritime rights on the part of other powers will ever be a ready means to open the temple of Janus. The violation of neutral rights, the confiscation or detention of property, the consequences of such claims, will ever, by the citizen, be just and awakening causes of appeal to the nation to which he owes allegiance; and from the experience of the last thirty-five years, it cannot be expected that international law will be so clearly expounded, or so religiously observed, as to protect the weak from aggression, or deter the strong from violence. In founding upon such conduct and causes a belief of the probable return of war, it is but natural to look around us to discover what country is most likely to stand forth as an enemy, and it must be acknowledged that of all others England is the most likely to assume that position. Rivals in commercial enterprize, and soon so to be in the arts of domestic fabrication. Rivals in the principles upon which are based the great political institutions of either country, in the successful adaptation of certain elements of civil freedom to the state of society, in the progress of civilization, as it is controlled or modified by the arts and sciences; these two great nations, standing upon opposite hemispheres, survey as it were the condition of each other, and glance over the great ocean itself, alike to be the scene of their exertions and the sources of their power. From the cold and cheerless seas, where the adventurous fisherman pursues the whale, to the genial and smiling climes where nature breathes eternal summer, or reposes in the continual fragrance of flowers and spices, the vessels of either nation ply their trade. If the meteor flag waves over the castles and towers of distant countries, the star-spangled banner displays itself in their ports. Each breeze wafts abroad the rich products of home, or brings back the exchanged wealth of strangers. Such is now the flourishing and happy condition of both; but the same cannot endure forever. "The great globe itself shall change, yea all which it inherit," and this competition, continued in rivalship, must end in inequality; then comes the reign of commercial monopoly, which like the armed hand, is not to be endured in friendship, or with safety.

The conduct of nations towards one another must always be regulated by their relative interests; from this truth the government of the United States possesses a sort of guaranty of good faith, by the strong interest which the British Empire has in

the provinces of Canada. It is through these possessions that the United States can always with least cost assail that power. The interests to England are much greater than they could be to the United States, having reference only to the lumber and fisheries; and the stake thus to be ventured by the violation of national law, or of special treaties, is a wholesome restraint upon commercial cupidity, and national jealousy. This is a consideration which, whilst it shews that the Republic is unambitious of territorial acquisition, teaches us also the propriety of possessing an established military force, which is at all times speedily made available to resent an injury.

The extent of territory, the amount of population, the character and strength of surrounding or neighboring nations, the political connections, form of government, and genius of a people, are the data upon which are based the expediency of military preparation, and the extent to which such preparation ought to be carried. Contrast now the points named, with the actual forces of the principal nations of the world, and with the condition of the United States, and then judge what danger there can possibly be, from such establishments. In reference to England, and to this country more particularly, the phantom of military usurpation retreats within the confines of the imagination, or is seen the mere phantasm of the brain, the bug-bear of popular fear and silly prejudice, which approaches to superstition. We conclude with this observation, that the prejudices entertained against military establishments, which the wants of the country demand, are not supported by the history of military bodies in any nation, or in any age, and are strikingly in contradiction to the very experience of our own government.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

TO THE OFFICERS OF THE TWO SERVICES.

To appear before the world in the character of an Essayist at an age, when, by popular consent one can know but little, and where one is surrounded by talented seniors, is certainly a hazardous step. The attempts of a young rooster to imitate the pulmonary achievements of the veteran cock, are in the estimation of some not more ludicrous. "This *genius* is continually scribbling," says one; "he's fond of seeing his name in print," says another; whilst a very respectable majority of his fellows, honestly express it as their opinion, that "if he'd read more, and write less, it would be better for himself and his country."

That the pruning hook of ridicule is frequently judiciously applied to redundant branches on the tree of exuberant intel-

lect, and that whatever tends to make more readers and fewer authors, deserves the approval of every scholar, no one will hesitate to admit. But that censure in these matters is frequently the result of malevolence, and a consciousness of mental mediocrity, will be allowed with as little reluctance. All of us have friends competent to the production of excellent essays on a variety of topics, but are absolutely deterred from their composition, at first through fear of sarcasm, and at length from disinclination to encounter men, from whom, in the event of success in the literary arena, no honours could be won, nor fame acquired.

This indifference to appear as a contributor to a periodical, when a man has been told by well tried friends of his inadequacy, is commendable; but to apply the term modesty, when the true word is disinclination, is evidently reprehensible. For example, the army and navy are filled with as intelligent men as the Union can afford. Every branch of science and literature find votaries in the quarters of the American officers; more than two thirds of their time are devoted to books and conversation, the muses, and the society of the ladies; yet they suffer several numbers of a journal, established expressly for their use, and which they have been demanding for years, to be filled with foreign matter, and lists of laws that have been read and re-read repeatedly. For this there can be no apology.

Brothers! forming as we do a family with which, from the peculiar spirit of our country's institutions, and the commendable dispositions of its citizens, we must ever be identified, let us unite in rendering "the Army and Navy Magazine" the repository of American military talent, and the altar on which all our literary oblations shall be offered; the hours of *ennui*, unavoidable in our comparatively monotonous career, will speedily cease to exist; we shall have a monthly Mercury, the very expectation of whose arrival will cheer our isolated existence, and assure us of our unabating connexion with society; of friends dead, married, transferred, resigned, shipwrecked, and all the 'pride, pomp, and circumstance' of our terrestrial relations.

Humble as you perceive my abilities are, I shall forward to the publishers an article for the next number, which, if rejected, will not deter me from another essay, which I hope to find accompanied by a series of original articles from my brothers in arms generally. COQUILLE.

[The publishers will be very happy to receive contributions from the writer of the foregoing article, and from all others who are so inclined.

It must not be forgotten, however, that the republication of the best articles that can be found in foreign periodicals, and the laws of Congress relating to the army and navy, forms a part of the design of our Magazine.]

MILITARY ACADEMY AT WEST POINT.

Among other items, prepared for the last number, which we were compelled to omit for want of room, was a list of the gentlemen invited to attend the annual examination of the Cadets at West Point. The following are their names. Those in italics did not attend.

List of Gentlemen invited to attend the examination of the Cadets of the United States' Military Academy, in June, 1833.

Massachusetts—James Russell, Esq. *Rev. J. Leland.*
Rhode Island—Gov. James Fenner.
New York—*Washington Irving, Esq.* Gen. Erastus Root. *Perley Keyes, Esq. Gen. Morgan Lewis.* Gov. J. C. Yates. Gen. Stephen Van Rensselaer.
New Jersey—*Gov. M. Dickerson. G. D. Wall, Esq.*
Pennsylvania—Col. E. Banks. Hon. J. R. Burden. Hon. T. H. Crawford.
Delaware—James Rogers, Esq. Geo. Reed, Esq.
Maryland—*Upton S. Heath, Esq.* J. S. Skinner, Esq.
Virginia—*Hon. W. S. Archer.* Major R. Pollard. Col. F. B. Povall.
South Carolina—*Hon. William Drayton.* Hon. J. R. Poinsett.
Georgia—Hon. J. Forsyth.
Tennessee—Rev. Doct. Charles Coffin.
Kentucky—*J. Haskin, Esq.* Dr. J. A. Tomlinson. *Warden Pope, Esq.*
Ohio—*Thomas R. Ross, Esq.*
Michigan—John Norvell.
U. S. Army—Gen. J. R. Fenwick. Col. James Bankhead.

The Report of the Board of Visiters, being an important and interesting document, we have made room for it to the exclusion of other matter, which had been previously prepared.

REPORT

Of the Board of Visiters to the general examination of Cadets of the United States' Military Academy; in June, 1833.

To the Secretary of War:

The Board of Visiters, who have been invited to be present at the general examination of the Cadets of the United States' Military Academy, in order that the War Department may be correctly informed of the condition and management of the Academy, have attended the examination of all the classes, and are perfectly satisfied with the progress made by the Cadets in the several departments of their studies in which they were examined.

At the request of the Superintendent, a Committee appointed by order of the Board, assigned the subjects to each individual of the class, in order to avoid all suspicion of the Examining Professor having adapted the subject to the capacity and attainments of the Cadet, so as to exhibit an appearance of greater proficiency than the class really possesses.

The first class was examined in Military and Civil Engineering, in Mineralogy, Rhetoric, Ethics and Constitutional and

National Law, and in Infantry and Artillery tactics; and in each of these departments exhibited proofs of their application and attainments, and of the zeal, capacity, and industry of the Professor and Assistants. The Cadets of this class will leave the Academy well fitted to fulfil the great objects of the institution, viz: to introduce into the armies of the United States all the modern improvements in the art of war, and the high state of discipline which distinguishes the best armies of Europe, to disseminate throughout our country a knowledge of Military Tactics and Engineering, so as to furnish the means of rendering our militia as well as our regular army an efficient arm of defence in time of war; and to provide officers properly instructed and fully capable of superintending the construction of fortifications, for the permanent defence of our maritime frontier, and of works connected with the internal improvement of the country.

The Cadets of the second class were examined in Chemistry and Natural Philosophy, and showed a degree of proficiency very creditable to the Professors and Assistants, who have been charged with their instruction in these departments. The Board would here remark, that in their opinion it would be expedient to establish a permanent Professor of Chemistry. The important discoveries made and still making in this department of science, and its application to the useful arts, as well as its connexion with the means of preserving the health of the soldier in camps and barracks, render it important that it should be taught in this Academy; and it is obvious that it requires great application, experience, and long practice, to teach a science which must be illustrated by experiments made before the pupil. It is believed to be difficult to acquire the art of instructing youth in any department of literature or science; but it is especially so in those which require skill in demonstrating the theories and principles by experiments. Instruction in such branches ought not to be entrusted to officers liable to be frequently removed.

The third class were examined in Mathematics and French. There is no institution, that we are acquainted with, where this department of science in its higher branches is more thoroughly taught than in this Academy. The high attainments, and unwearied industry, of the Professors and Assistants, together with the great application and capacity of the Cadets of the third class, were exhibited throughout the course of this examination in a manner highly satisfactory to the Board.

The examination in French was very creditable to the Teachers and Cadets of this class. They appeared to be well instructed in the grammar of this difficult language, conjugating the regular and irregular verbs very correctly, and they translated it into English with great facility, which is all that is

deemed requisite: the principal object of this course being to enable the Cadet to consult the best French Authors on Military Science.

As there are at least 160 students to be taught in this language, it is believed by those best acquainted with the subject, that another teacher in this branch ought to be added to those already employed.

The fourth class were examined in Mathematics and French. The Cadets of this class evinced a degree of proficiency in the elementary branches of Mathematics highly creditable to the gentleman who is charged with this department of their studies. Whatever may be the talents and application of the student, he cannot make any proficiency in this essential department of study, which may be considered as the foundation of all military education, unless his studies are directed by a person not only profoundly versed in the science, but possessed of great experience in the art of instructing youth; and the Board would take this opportunity of remarking, that to remove such an instructer from the Academy for the purpose of substituting another, who, whatever his talents and acquirements may be, does not possess the same experience and practice in teaching, cannot but be prejudicial to the interests of the Academy, and would be unjust to the Cadets.

The Government exacts from them, especially in the department of Mathematics, a degree of proficiency, which they cannot obtain without the assistance of competent instructers; and they may be exposed to be turned back as deficient, or to be dismissed as incapable of going through the course of studies in the Academy, because the instructer provided for them is incompetent or inexperienced.

The Board is induced to make these remarks from having had before them a late order of the Commander in Chief, containing regulations sanctioned by you, which, if applicable to this Academy, would seem calculated to affect very materially the instruction of the Cadets. It appears to them that the regulations requiring all officers, who have not served with their regiments for three years to join their respective corps, as it will remove nearly all the Assistant Professors from the Academy, would be attended with very great inconvenience at any time; and at this period, when the Superintendent, who has so long presided over this institution, with such signal ability and success, is about to retire, such a change would seriously embarrass his successor. This embarrassment will be increased by the effect of the regulation, which takes from the Superintendent the power of nominating the officers to be detached for that service. He is supposed from his situation to be better acquainted than any one else with the acquirements and moral character of the graduates, and as the responsibility rests with him, it

appears but just that he should have the power of selecting his Assistants. It is deemed important, that the course of studies should be steady, and keep pace with the improvements which daily take place in the progress of science. This would be impracticable if the Assistant Professors were frequently changed, and selected from officers who had graduated prior to the introduction of the improvements now taught in this institution throughout every department of science. Indeed it would appear advisable that the Professors and Assistant Professors, who have evinced so much capacity in imparting instruction to youth, should be offered every inducement to remain, by being permanently attached to the institution, and receiving some additional allowance for services materially affecting the future character and efficiency of the army, and which, if they were rendered in any literary institution in the country, would command much higher pecuniary rewards.

The Board attended the Battalion, Light Infantry, and Artillery drills, and had every reason to be satisfied with the instruction of the Cadets in their field exercises. They were present likewise in the Laboratory, when the Cadets exhibited their proficiency in Pyrotechny, and they subsequently saw them throw shells, and fire at the target with light and heavy pieces of Artillery; all which they executed with a precision rarely equalled, and not surpassed in any school of practice in Europe.

This is the more remarkable from the state of the pieces used for practice. They are very defective, and the Board recommend that the several pieces of Ordnance, which are required for the instruction of the Cadets by their able and scientific instructer, should be furnished of the best quality and most approved constructions.

Much credit is due to the officer charged with the instruction of the Cadets in this department. He has compiled a practical treatise on Military Pyrotechny, and translated an excellent elementary treatise on the forms of Cannon and various systems of Artillery, and another on the Theory and Practice of Gunnery, from the French of Professor Persy, of Metz; all of which, with numerous plates illustrating the subjects, have been published in the Lithographic Press in the Academy.

The Cadets are encamped two months in every year, and during that period are instructed in all the duties of the soldier in active service, in the use of instruments, and in the application of the different branches of science necessary to a knowledge of their profession; whether this practical course of the application of science to the purposes of Military and Civil Engineering may not be usefully extended, is worthy of consideration.

The Library of the Academy contains a very valuable collection of works adapted to the peculiar objects of this institu-

tion. It is rich in works on military science and on civil Engineering, and contains a valuable series of military history, and the best Geographical and Topographical maps of the States of Europe to illustrate this important study. It is true that in works on polite literature it is as yet rather deficient, although the selection has been very judicious; but however desirable it may be to augment the number of volumes on miscellaneous subjects, the real object of the institution must be kept steadily in view, and it will continue to be the duty of the Superintendent to purchase, in preference to all others, books relating to the sciences taught in this Academy, and to supply the necessary works on Architecture, Chemistry, Geology, Mineralogy, and Moral Science, in which the Library is still very deficient.

The philosophical apparatus and astronomical instruments are of the best kind and of the latest invention; but many more are required fully to illustrate the course of Natural Philosophy.

The building which contains the Library and philosophical apparatus is both unsafe and unstable, and the rooms are so small and inconvenient as not to admit of the necessary arrangement and display of them for useful purposes. Many instruments of the philosophical apparatus, which are delicate in their structure and uses, and require to be very nicely and accurately adjusted, are exposed to be injured by the constant and violent shaking of the edifice, and the finer astronomical instruments cannot be used from the same reason and from want of space. A large telescope is placed in a detached building entirely unsuited to its uses.

For these reasons, and from the intrinsic value of the books and instruments, the Board recommend the erection of a fire proof building with an observatory annexed to it.

Upon a careful and minute examination of the public buildings of the Academy, it has been found, that they are inadequate to the purposes of the institution, and are not only badly constructed, but entirely too limited to afford comfortable or proper accommodations for the Cadets who are lodged in them.

A number of Cadets are from necessity crowded into a small room, which must produce a prejudicial effect upon their studies, their morals, and their health. That they have been exempt hitherto from the diseases which are engendered in confined and crowded apartments, is due altogether to the admirable system of internal police and strict attention to cleanliness which distinguish every department of this institution.

There is besides a want of accommodations for the Assistant Professors; and the Quarter Master, Pay Master, and Adjutant are without offices. For all these purposes nearly fifty new rooms are required. The Board would recommend, that the Superintendent be instructed to furnish a plan of a building

capable of uniting all the accommodations required by the officers and Cadets now at the Academy, and of being extended whenever the Government may think it expedient to enlarge this institution, and render it proportionate to our vast territories and rapidly increasing population; and that whenever it may be thought proper to erect the building now called for, it may be so constructed as to form part of an edifice hereafter to be completed with more extensive accommodations.

On examining into the fiscal concerns of the Academy, the Board had every reason to be satisfied, that great economy has been exercised in the administration of this department of the institution, and cheerfully bear testimony to the order and regularity with which the books are kept, and the receipts and disbursements accounted for, as well as to the integrity and judicious economy with which the finances of the Academy are administered.

There are several subjects, the importance of which is fully understood and acknowledged by the Superintendent and Academic Staff, but which are not taught in this institution for want of time. In military and civil engineering it is thought that the following might be introduced with great advantage to the Cadets: A course of applied mechanics on the investigation and description of some of the most usual machines employed in the construction of public works. Some practical exercises in the field, such as laying out and throwing up some of the works of a campaign which are most ordinarily used; batteries, trenches, cavaliers, the manner of conducting saps, the construction of gabions and fascines, &c. &c. and a course of topography as applied to military reconnoissances; indeed, such is the vast importance of this branch, that a new department, embracing the whole subject, could not fail to be very advantageous to the military student.

In the department of Natural Philosophy, many important practical illustrations might be advantageously introduced. At present, the experimental part of the course is principally confined to the illustration of such facts and general principles as may be established by experiments exhibited in the presence of the entire class. These illustrations are attended with the most beneficial effects, as they serve to make a very forcible impression on the mind of the student, but they are alone insufficient. It is frequently important that the student should not only be acquainted with the name and use of an instrument; but that he should be able to employ it himself. This can only be done when sufficient time is allowed for each student to make frequent use of such instruments under the immediate direction of the Professor.

This deficiency is particularly felt in the course of Astronomy, where an intimate acquaintance with the use of instruments,

and the habits of submitting the data furnished by observation to the process of calculation, are essentially necessary to enable the student to apply his theoretical knowledge to useful purposes. The instruction in practical Astronomy is altogether too limited. The time which can be devoted to this object being scarcely more than sufficient to permit the Professor to make the students acquainted with the objects of the few instruments in the possession of this department. This is certainly a great defect; important lines are frequently required to be established as boundaries between States and Territories of neighboring nations, where the accurate use of instruments is of the last importance, and the Cadets of this Academy ought to be practically taught to use them with perfect correctness.

The principles of Strategy, or Grand Tactics, might be taught with advantage. It is true that there is no work treating of those subjects which is sufficiently condensed, and at the same time perfectly unexceptionable in its principles and illustrations; but the same industry and talent which have furnished text books in other departments of military science, might be employed for this purpose with great success, and furnish a series of lectures embracing a definition of the technical terms employed, and of such general principles as admit of the clearest and most exact illustration.

It appears always to have been desirable that Cavalry Tactics should be taught at a great National Military Academy. This branch has hitherto been totally neglected; but it has become more essentially necessary since this arm has been added to the regular army of the country. The service of Cavalry and Horse Artillery ought to form a part of the practical instruction of this Academy; and the Board respectfully recommend this subject to your consideration. As the Cadets are now occupied sedulously every hour of the day in the prosecution of the studies now taught in this institution, it will be necessary, if these subjects are deemed of sufficient importance to be added to the present course, that the term of the academic study should be extended—or that the qualifications required on entering the Academy should be made much greater than they now are. They are now lower than is required by any literary institution in this country; and no doubt the frequent dismissal of those young men, who cannot keep up with their class, arises principally from this cause. Parents ought to be informed of the great advantage their sons would derive the first year of their course at this Academy, by being well grounded in the classics, in arithmetic, algebra, and in the rudiments of the French language.

The manner in which the Cadets are furnished with clothing, was a subject of inquiry by the Board, who are satisfied that this is done in the most economical manner.—Their mess-room

was inspected while the Cadets were at their meals; and the Board were satisfied that the steward fulfilled his contract faithfully, and supplied the tables with abundance.

An inquiry having been made into the manner in which the Cadets are supplied with the class books and stationery; the Board are satisfied, after a careful investigation, that the Cadets are supplied with all such articles at a lower price than they can be purchased in New York, and in the most convenient, just and economical manner; and that the arrangement made by the Superintendent in this particular, is marked by the same prudent economy, order and intelligence, which characterize the management of the institution.

The Board having learned that the present Superintendent of the Military Academy, whose health has suffered from his close attention to the affairs of the institution, has, by his own solicitation, been called to the performance of other duties, cannot forbear to express the very high sense they entertain of his merit and services, during the long period of his command of the station.

To the knowledge acquired with this view by Col. Thayer, the Military Academy of the United States owes its present admirable organization; and to his zeal, capacity and unwearied attention to his duties, is to be attributed the high state of discipline and improvement of the institution. To his exertions we owe, in a great measure, the success of this establishment, the extensive usefulness of which needs only to be understood by the nation, to be fully appreciated.

Independently of serving to disseminate over the vast territories of the United States, knowledge of a description which cannot enter into the usual course of studies in other Academies, and furnishing the means of rendering most effective our army and militia; of securing our frontier, and improving the communications throughout the States; it is calculated to elevate the moral state of the military profession in our country, the importance of which to the general interests of the nation, cannot be too much insisted upon.

The annals of history prove, that success in arms is one of the most faithful sources of personal popularity; and in a country where the soldier is still a citizen, and may be called upon to share in the civil government, or rise to the highest honors of the State, the standard of study and discipline cannot be too high, which developes his talents and forms his character. The same annals show that at the close of successful wars, the liberties of a country depend in a great measure upon the character of its armies:—at such a period the fortunate soldier possesses power, and great and probably well earned popularity: and if his character is not so elevated by nature or education as to lead him to prefer the solid fame of having preserved the

liberties of his fellow-citizens to the glitter of false ambition, and to sacrifice all personal views of aggrandizement to the good of his country, he may plunge the State into anarchy, or rivet upon his fellow citizens the chains of despotism. If ever the liberties of the States of Europe shall be recovered, it will be effected through the improved condition, character and education of their officers and soldiers; and while we indulge the hope that the liberty of these States rests upon too firm a basis to be overthrown by the ambition of those who compose our armies, it cannot be concealed that if they were not instructed, their ignorance and depravity might seriously endanger the peace of the country.

The Board have observed with some regret, that the old works in the neighborhood of the Academy have been in some instances, disturbed. They ought, in their opinion, to be preserved as monuments of the glorious struggle, which secured our independence. The contemplation of such memorials cannot fail to have a beneficial effect. They are calculated to inspire all Americans with sentiments of exalted patriotism, and to remind them of the extraordinary efforts and great sacrifices made by our forefathers to achieve the liberty and independence of the country—and cannot fail to lead them to form virtuous resolutions and to reflect that as heirs of the immortal fame of their ancestors, they are bound to emulate their glorious career, and preserve their bright inheritance with the same inflexible courage and undeviating purpose.

STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER, *President.*

Charles Coffin,	*John R. Fenwick,*	*James Fenner,*
J. R. Burden,	Brig. Gen.	*John A. Tomlinson,*
J. S. Skinner,	*James Bankhead,*	*F. B. Povall,*
Levin Gale,	*J. R. Poinsett,*	*R. Pollard,*
James Russell,	*Erastus Root,*	*G. Read,*
T. H. Crawford,	*John Forsyth,*	*J. Rogers.*
E. Banks,	*Joseph C. Yates,*	

JOHN NORVELL, *Secretary.*

ORDER, No. 48. HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, May 18th, 1833.

The following Regulations having received the sanction of the War Department, are published for the information and government of all concerned.

1.——*Appointments to the Staff, and details of officers to assist in Staff Departments.*

1—As far as practicable, all appointments in the Staff and details for assistance in the departments of the Staff, will be equalized on the several

regiments, according to the strength of each regiment in officers. The regiment of Dragoons, unless in cases specially authorized by the Secretary of War, will not be subject to such details.

2—The Artillery, under the provisions of the law, furnishes the details for the Ordnance; it will also furnish its proportion for other extra duties, according to its numbers, after deducting the details for the Ordnance.

3—All applications for officers for any Staff duty, including the Military Academy, will, in the first instance, be made by officers in charge of the Staff departments requiring assistance, to the Adjutant General, stating the number of officers required, without naming them, in order that the details may be made according to the principles embraced in paragraphs 1 and 2, should such detail meet the approbation of the Secretary of War.

4—An officer shall not be allowed to fill any Staff appointment, the duties of which will detach him from his regiment, until he has served at least three years with his regiment. The same rule will be observed in regard to selections of officers for duty in the Ordnance, Engineer, and Topographical Departments, or other detached duties not connected with the regiment.

5—Hereafter, all officers detailed for duty in any Staff Department, or on any detached service, shall not remain so detached, for a longer period than two years; but may be relieved earlier, according to circumstances.

6—All officers absent from their regiments, and who have not served as above, will be relieved and ordered to join their respective regiments and stations by the 1st of May, 1834, or as soon as the public service will, in the opinion of the General-in-Chief, permit.

7—The above rule will not apply to Aides de Camp.

II.——*Restrictions as to Extra Allowances.*

In all cases, hereafter, where an officer of the Army is required, by the special direction of the War Department, to perform duties or to make disbursements, for which compensation is not specifically provided by law, or by the Regulations, and where the instructions directing such duties to be done, or such disbursements to be made, make no provision for any additional compensation, no allowance therefor will be made to such officer. It will then be considered that, in the opinion of the War Department, the services so required are within the proper sphere of his duty, as an officer of the Army.

III.——*Leaves of Absence.*

1—No leave of absence shall be granted to any officer until he has joined his regiment, or corps, and served with it at least three years.

2—When the state of the service will permit, leave of absence may be granted to an officer for ninety days, who has served three years with his regiment.

3—Officers who have not received leave of absence as above, may be allowed to be absent at the rate of ninety days for the first three years, and forty days for each additional year they have actually continued on regimental duty, and if they have received indulgence for a less period than is here specified, then so many days as will make up the difference; but in no instance will a leave of absence be granted to exceed one year.

4—Commanding officers of regiments may, with the approbation of Generals of Departments, grant short leaves of absence to officers of their own regiments, not exceeding ten days in any one month, provided that in any one year the whole indulgence so granted does not exceed thirty days; which short leaves will be taken into the estimate of the leaves of absence to be granted to such officers.

5—Generals of Departments will hereafter grant leaves only to their immediate Staff officers, and within the limits mentioned in paragraph 4th.

6—Officers are not to leave the United States without permission from General Head Quarters, unless it may be the most convenient route to their proper destination, as in travelling from post to post.

7—The practice which has so extensively prevailed, of officers of the Army visiting the seat of government, has been injurious to the public service. The evils of this practice have been not only in withdrawing officers from their proper stations, but frequently in its effects upon the business of the Army and upon public opinion. There are no benefits to individuals which can counteract the disadvantages of this indiscriminate indulgence. Where such visits are necessary for the public service, or for any just right of the individual concerned, they will be authorized. Nor will reasonable indulgence for the gratification of a laudable curiosity be refused, where the circumstances of the applicants make those proper, and where the public interest will not suffer. But of the propriety of these, the General-in-Chief will judge, and, therefore, no officer will visit the seat of Government unless ordered, or unless specially permitted so to do by the General-in-Chief. An officer, however, may pass through the seat of government when on duty or on leave of absence, provided it is the most direct route to his place of destination; but in such case, he will report in person to the Adjutant General, and will not remain more than twenty-four hours.

8—All applications to General Head Quarters for leaves of absence, will be made through the immediate commander of the officer requesting the indulgence, and the commandant of the post, who will forward the application to the Colonel of the regiment for his approval.

Form of Application for Leave of Absence.

Rank and Name.
From what period.
To what period.
On what account.

Distribution of the Officers of the ——— Regiment of ———.

		Field officers	Captains	Subalterns	Byt 2d Lieuts
Present	On duty with the Regiment				
Absent	On Staff or other duty				
	With leave				
	Without leave				
	Vacancies				
	Establishment				

This space is to contain the letter of the commanding officer of the regiment to the Adjutant General, stating the grounds on which he is induced to recommend the request for favorable consideration: and particularly stating, if the applicant be a company officer, the number of officers with his company for duty.

If the officer be not on duty in the line, the application for leave will be sent direct, by the commandant of the post, to General Head Quarters.

9—No leave of absence, upon the tender and acceptance of the resignation of a commission, shall exceed the following rates:

Twelve months in cases of service exceeding twelve years;

Ten months in cases of service exceeding ten years, and not over twelve years;

Eight months in cases of service exceeding eight years, and not over ten years;

Five months in cases of service exceeding six years, and not over eight years;

Three months in cases of service exceeding four years, and not over six years;

One month in cases of service exceeding three years, and not over four years.

No such leave of absence will be granted any officer until he has served three years.

10—In computing the period of service, the time will be excluded which may have been occupied by preceding leaves of absence, and by extra duty, to which any additional compensation or allowances may have been made.

11—Three months leave of absence will be allowed to Cadets on their graduation at the Military Academy, to visit their friends and to equip themselves for service; at the end of which time they are to join the regiments or corps to which they may respectively be attached. Any graduate failing to join within the specified time, will be considered as not having accepted his appointment, and his name will be dropped from the rolls of the Army.

12—The term *leave of absence* is applicable to the permission granted to officers of the Army to be absent from their duty; and the term *furlough* to similar permission granted to non-commissioned officers, musicians and privates.

13—It will be distinctly understood that the indulgences mentioned in these regulations are not matters of right, and to be granted of course; but they are intended as limitations upon the prevailing practice, and as establishing its utmost extent. Applications will, therefore, in all cases, be decided upon the circumstances as they are presented, and upon the professional character and services of the applicants, respectively.

IV.——*Absence without leave.*

1—The pay and allowances of all officers who may be absent without leave, shall be suspended; and all Paymasters are prohibited from paying them, until a satisfactory explanation shall have been given through the commanding officers of their respective regiments or posts, as to the cause of their being so absent, and a justification of the same shall have been made to General Head Quarters, through the Adjutant General, to be laid before the Secretary of War; in order that if no satisfactory account can be obtained as to the cause of their absence, all such officers so offending may be stricken from the rolls of the Army. The pay accounts of all officers presented for payment during the period of their absence from their permanent stations, will be accompanied by a copy of the order or leave, which detaches them from their proper commands, or stations.

V.——*Absence on account of ill health.*

1—When officers are prevented by ill health from joining their regiments, they will transmit certificates of their state of health to the commanding officer of their respective regiments, and also to the Adjutant General. These certificates to be signed by a medical officer of the Army; but should no medical officer of the Army be in the vicinity to sign such certificate, a resident physician of the place will sign the same, attested by a magistrate.—These certificates to be transmitted so as to arrive at the Head Quarters of the regiment, and at the office of the Adjutant General, before the expiration of the periods of leave which the officers may have received.

2—The medical officer is to state candidly and explicitly his opinion as to the period which will probably elapse before such officer will be able to resume his military duties; and when there is no reason to expect a recovery, or where the prospect of recovery is distant and uncertain, it must be so stated. The following is the form of the certificate.

Form of Medical Certificate.

———— of the —— Regiment of ———— having applied for a certificate on which to ground an application for leave of absence,

I do hereby certify, that I have carefully examined this officer, and find

that [*here the nature of the disease, wound, &c. is to be fully stated, and the period during which the officer has suffered under its effects*] and that, in consequence thereof, I conceive him to be incapable of military duty: I further declare my belief that he will not be able to resume his duties in a less period than [*here state candidly and explicitly the opinion as to the period which will probably elapse before the officer will be able to undertake his military duties. When there is no reason to expect a recovery, or when the prospect of recovery is distant and uncertain, it must be so stated.*]

Dated at ———— this ——— day of ————

Signature of the medical officer, ———— ————

I have the honor to forward the above certificate of my ill state of health, which renders me at present incapable of performing my duty, and to state that I have already been absent with leave, from the ——— day of ——— by permission of ———— and from the ——— day of ——— to the ——— day of ———— by permission of ————.

Signature of the officer, ———— ————

Place of residence, ————

3—Whenever an officer shall remain absent unable to do duty for two years, his case will be specially reported for the consideration of the President of the United States. That term will generally be found sufficiently long to decide whether the disability is permanent. If it is judged to be so, the case in all its circumstances, looking to the physical condition of the officer, as well as to his services and the origin of the disorder, whether owing to exposure in the line of his duty, will be the subject of examination and decision by the Executive.

By order of Major General MACOMB:

R. JONES,
Adjutant General.

MILITARY INTELLIGENCE.

West Point.—Colonel Sylvanus Thayer, who has long held the post of Superintendent of the Military Academy, has been relieved from that command, at his own instance, and Major R. E. De Russey is appointed to succeed him.

Army Medical Board.—Drs. Lawson, Mower and Smith, were in New Orleans in the early part of May, engaged in the duties assigned to them by the War Department. From the well known abilities of these gentlemen, and the rigid manner in which they conduct their examinations, the successful candidates will enter upon their official duties with the strongest guarantees of professional excellence. The Medical Staff of the Army, now filled by very talented individuals, will hereafter present additional claims to the respect of the community generally. The augmentation of their pay, so strenuously urged by the Secretary of War, and which would have been allowed at the past session, but for the intervention of all-engrossing topics, will, we have no doubt, receive the early attention of the next Congress; a measure which, we feel assured, will meet the approbation of every friend of our gallant Army.

Company H, of the 1st Artillery, commanded by Capt. H. W. Griswold, arrived at Fortress Monroe, on Thursday, 13th June, from Beaufort, N. C. via the Dismal Swamp Canal, in the Schr. Susan, Captain Brooks.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

DRY DOCKS.—The completion of two new Dry Docks, one at Gosport, Va. the other at Charlestown, Mass. is an important epoch in our Naval history. They have been built in the most substantial manner, and reflect great credit upon the skill of the Engineer, Col. L. BALDWIN, who superintended their construction.

The ship of the line *Delaware* was safely taken into the Dock at Gosport, on Monday 17th June, where she will be repaired and perhaps coppered.—She will then go round to New York, to take on board Mr. LIVINGSTON and suite, and after landing them at some port in France, proceed to take her station as the flag-ship in the Mediterranean. Captain H. E. BALLARD has arrived at Norfolk to take command of the *Delaware*.

The Frigate Constitution, (*Old Ironsides*, as she is familiarly called) was safely taken into the Dock at Charlestown, on Monday 24th June.

It may be asserted, without fear of contradiction, that no Docks in the world are superior to those at Charlestown and Gosport.

MEDITERRANEAN.—The Frigate Brandywine, Captain J. Renshaw, arrived at Lisbon on the 11th May, from Gibraltar.

Frigate United States, Com. Patterson, arrived at Toulon in company with the Constellation, Capt. G. C. Read, on the 16th April, from Mahon, and placed under quarantine. The United States will remain in the Mediterranean during the summer. The Constellation will cruise on the coast of Africa, after the two vessels shall have reached Smyrna, to which place the John Adams had proceeded.

BRAZIL.—Sloop Lexington, Capt. McKeever, sailed from Rio on the 8th May, for Bahia.

Sloop Warren, Capt. Cooper, sailed from Rio for the River La Plata, 21st April.

Schr. Enterprize, Lieut. Com'g Downing, sailed from Rio, 22nd April, for Bahia, Maranham and Para.

Sloop Peacock, Capt. Geisinger, sailed from Lintin, 28th December, for Cochin China.

Schr. Boxer, Lieut. Com'g Shields, at Batavia 15th February.

WEST INDIES.—Sloop Vandalia, Captain Budd, sailed from Vera Cruz 23d May on a cruise.

Schr. Shark, Lieut. Com'g Boerum, at Pensacola, 14th June.

Schr. Grampus, Lieut. Com'g Smoot, at Guadaloupe 23d May, to sail next day on a cruise.

Schr. Porpoise, Lieut. Com'g McIntosh, arrived at Key West 22nd May, ten days from Pensacola, and was there on the 30th.

U. S. Frigate Potomac,
VALPARAISO, 18TH MARCH, 1833.

SIR:—

I have the honor to acquaint you with the arrival of the Potomac at this place on the 15th inst. sixteen days from Callao. I left the Falmouth there, to sail the 4th instant, to give protection to our commercial and whaling interests, on the coast of Peru to the northward of Lima as far as Guayaquil. The Dolphin had not returned from Panama when I sailed from Callao: I expect her here about the middle of April.

I am Sir, with great respect,
Your most ob't Serv't,
JOHN DOWNES,
Commanding U. S. Squadron in the Pacific.

The Hon. LEVI WOODBURY,
Secretary of the Navy.

The transfers intimated in the last number as likely to occur, have since taken place. Commodore Charles Stewart has retired from the Board of Navy Commissioners, and Commodore Isaac Chauncey succeeds him. Commodore Charles G. Ridgely hoisted his broad pendant as Commandant of the Navy Yard at New York, on Thursday 20th June.

The U. S. ship *Vincennes*, Capt. W. D. SALTER, from New York, with a detachment of seamen for the U. S. ship *Delaware;* and schr. *Experiment*, Lieut. Com. MERVINE, from Boston, anchored in Hampton Roads, on Wednesday June 19th.

Master Commandant THOMAS T. WEBB has been ordered to the Navy Yard at Gosport, Va. in the place of Master Commandant E. A. F. VALLETTE, appointed to the Fairfield.

PASSED MIDSHIPMEN.

A Board, composed of Commodore Jacob Jones as President, and Captains J. J. Nicholson and W. B. Shubrick as members, convened at Baltimore on the 6th May, for the examination of such Midshipmen as presented themselves, agreeably to the orders of the Department.

The following is a list of those who were found qualified for promotion, arranged in the order fixed by the Board.

Warrants dated in 1826.

1 James F. Miller,
2 Henry A. Steele,
3 Charles Heywood,
4 Ed. R. Thompson,
5 Wm. C. Farrar,
6 Francis Bartlett,
7 Francis Huger,
8 Robert J. Ross,
9 Wm. Chandler,
10 Geo. N. Hawkins.

Warrants dated in 1827.

1 Thomas J. Page,
2 Geo. Minor,
3 Percival Drayton,
4 Wm. C. Griffin,
5 Oliver Tod,
6 Robert F. Pinkney,
7 Thomas R. Rootes,
8 Edward M. Yard,
9 J. T. McLaughlin,
10 James M. Gilliss,
11 Alex. Gibson,
12 Wm. S. Young,
13 Wm. W. Bleecker,
14 Joseph F. Green,
15 Algernon S. Worth,
16 Zach. Holland,
17 Bushrod W. Hunter,
18 Wm. C. Spencer,
19 Overton Carr,
20 Wm. B. Ludlow,
21 Luther Stoddard,
22 John R. Tucker,
23 Wm. M. Walker,
24 Geo. R. Gray,
25 John Weems,
26 C. S. Ridgely,
27 Robt. E. Johnson,
28 Geo. McCreery,
29 Wm. P. Jones,
30 John H. Maulsby,
31 John A. Winslow,
32 Benj. M. Dove,
33 James R. Sully,
34 B. J. Moeller,
35 Ferdinand Piper,
36 Henry Walke,
37 John J. White.

RESIGNATIONS,

IN THE NAVY AND MARINE CORPS.

George Izard, Lieut.	4	May,	1833.
A. C. McLean, 2nd Lieut. M. C.	8	"	"
E. L. Greenwood, Midshipman,	13	"	"
Francis E. Joyner, "	27	"	"
John R. Coxe, Lieut.	29	"	"
Wm. C. Banister, Midshipman,	6	June,	"
Henry Boornem, "	14	"	"
Alex. M. Henderson, "	17	"	"
Alex. K. Yancey, "	25	"	"

DISMISSIONS.

Walter C. Cutts, Passed Midshipman, 17th May.

Philip M. Box,
John E. Holt,
John C. Davidson,
} Midshipmen, who have failed to attend or pass examination.

APPOINTMENT.

George Washington McLean, of New York, to be 2nd Lieutenant of Marines, 8th May, 1833, vice *A. Clinton McLean*, resigned.

We have received two communications from Officers of the Navy, pointing out an error in the article in the June number of the Magazine, signed "A Subscriber," in which it is asserted that "a captain of the Navy receives $4 per man" for recruiting seamen, while "officers of the Army are allowed nothing." This allowance formerly existed in the Navy, but was abolished some years since; and the officer in charge of a Recruiting Rendezvous now receives the same pay and emoluments that are allowed to officers of a similar grade stationed at a Navy Yard.

The remarks which accompanied the two communications at the close of the last number, referred more particularly to the Army, and we omitted to correct the error under which one of our correspondents labored.

MARRIAGES.

In Philadelphia, on the 17th April, Dr. HENRY S. RENNOLDS, of Virginia, Assistant Surgeon in the U. S. Navy, to Miss ELIZABETH G. daughter of the late ISAAC SMITH, of Philadelphia.

In Syracuse, N. Y. on the 1st April, Lieut. R. B. MARCY, of the Army, to Miss MARY AMELIA MANN, daughter of the late SAMUEL MANN, of Syracuse.

In New York, on the 27th April, by the Rev. Dr. Mathews, Capt. M. A. PATRICK, of the U. S. Army, to Miss MARY A. DWIGHT, daughter of THEODORE DWIGHT, Esq. of New York.

In Philadelphia, on the 23th May, A. G. JAUDON, Esq. to Miss LUCY ANN, daughter of Com. WM. BAINBRIDGE, of the Navy.

In Providence, R. I. Lieut. JOSEPH A. PHILLIPS, of the Army, to Miss SOPHIA MANNING, daughter of the late THOS. M. BARROWS, M. D.

In Washington, on the 29th May, Mid. FRANCIS B. WRIGHT, of the Navy, to Miss MARIA HILL.

In Trenton, N. J. on the 5th June, Lieut. WM. EDGAR HUNT, of the Navy, to Miss SUSAN ELIZABETH, daughter of Dr. J. CLARKE.

In New York, on the 19th June, Lt. WILLIAM A. THORNTON, of the Army, to HELEN, daughter of Dr. GILBERT SMITH, of N. Y.

In Norfolk, Va. on the 18th June, Lt. DAVID A. MANNING, of the Army, to Miss FRANCES L. youngest daughter of the late JOHN E. HOLT, Esq.

In New Kent Co. Va. on the 17th June, at the residence of Dr. Geo. Kennon, Lieut. WILLIAM C. WHITTLE, of the Navy, to Miss ELIZABETH BEVERLY SINCLAIR, eldest daughter of the late Com. A. SINCLAIR, of the Navy.

DEATHS.

In New Orleans, on the 21st May, Dr. LEWIS HEERMANN, the oldest Surgeon in the Navy.

In Philadelphia, on the 31st May, Lt. JOHN M. RINKER, of the Navy.

At the U. S. Garrison, Baton Rouge, Lou. of Cholera, on the 27th May, after a painful and unusually distressing illness of six days, CATHERINE DORMER STANHOPE, aged 4 years and 26 days, daughter of Col. W. S. FOSTER, of the U. S. Army.

At St. Louis, Misso. of Cholera, on the May, Col. WILLIAM McREA, aged 46, formerly of the U. S. Army.

In Washington, on the 17th June, of Cholera Infantum TERESA MARIAN, infant daughter of Capt. P. G. HOWLE, of the Marine Corps.

In New York, on the 17th May, Capt. JOSEPH C. HALL, of the Marine Corps.

In Portsmouth, N. H. on the 19th Oct. 1832, JOSEPH ANDREWS, Gunner in the Navy.

MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

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FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

The following narrative of the expedition against the Sauk and Fox Indians, last year, has been kindly furnished by an officer who served in Gen. Atkinson's Brigade. We have taken the liberty to omit the introductory paragraph.

INDIAN CAMPAIGN OF 1832.

The Sauks and Foxes, forming one nation of Indians, occupying, until 1831, more or less of the country on both banks of the Mississippi, for about 150 miles above, and the same distance below, Rock Island, have always manifested, as a people, a hostile feeling towards the people of the United States. During the war with Great Britain, they were active and exceedingly useful allies of the English; repeatedly, and (as they boast) always successfully engaged against us. Several detachments of our army and militia were, previously to 1815, defeated by this warlike people. Since the latter date, the hostile feeling has been *openly* shown, only by a portion of the combined nation, (*Sauks* and *Foxes*) called the "British Band," of which a chief called *Muck-ut-tay Mich-e-kaw-kaik* (the celebrated Black Hawk) *was* the head. This band occupied the territory on the east bank of the Mississippi, principally along the Rock River, and ordinarily numbered about 400 warriors.

By a treaty, duly signed and ratified, the Sauks and Foxes, previously to 1831, conveyed that portion of their country ly-

ing east of the Mississippi, to the United States; and our settlers advanced to the shores of Rock river; the Indians so far acknowledging the treaty as to abandon the country and cross the Mississippi, where the majority, (if not all) took up their residence for a time.

In 1831, (the spring) Major General Gaines, commanding the western department, learned, by express, that the Indians in great numbers had re-crossed the river, commenced a system of aggression on the whites, and, by threats, and in some instances by violence, had driven off many families, and bade fair to succeed in their design of breaking up the settlements along the frontier of Illinois. The General promptly moved, with such troops as he could find disposable, (the 6th regiment and a small portion of the 3rd) to the scene of difficulty. Here he found the tone of the Indians so high, and their deportment so insufferably insolent, that, apprehending the necessity of an immediate resort to blows, he called on the Governor of Illinois for an auxiliary force of mounted militia; and made preparations to enforce the demand he had already made of the Indians, to evacuate the ceded territory. After much delay, and an unusual display of reckless audacity* on the part of the Sauks and Foxes, they finally crossed again to the west side of the river, and executed a treaty, one article of which solemnly stipulated, that *they never would land again on the east bank of the Mississippi, without the consent of the President of the United States and the Governor of Illinois.*

Within four months after the signing of this treaty, a numerous war party of this very band ascended the Mississippi, *landed on the east bank,* and within the limits of the American village of *Prairie des Chiens,* attacked a body of Menominies, (a nation distinguished for their unalterable friendship for the United States) and murdered, it is believed, twenty-eight individuals. It was for the purpose of demanding and obtaining the leaders in this outrage on our flag and laws, that Brigadier General Atkinson was ordered with his regiment (the 6th) to ascend the Mississippi, in the spring of 1832; and although circumstances have shown, that the Secretary of War, with the acuteness of judgment for which he is distinguished, aided by a thorough knowledge of the Indian character, clearly foresaw the result to which the disposition of the Indians would lead; yet very few others anticipated any occurrences more bloody than those of the preceding spring.

On the 8th April, '32, the force under Gen. Atkinson,—six

* The Indians came openly *armed* into council with the General—a proceeding, it is believed without precedent among them. They used in speech the most violent and threatening language and gestures. Had not the General felt compassion for their infatuation, he would probably have chastised them on the spot.

companies of the 6th regiment, with an aggregate of about 280, embarked at Jefferson Barracks, and proceeded up the river, in obedience to the orders before mentioned. At the Des Moines Rapids (200 miles above) it was first learned by the detachment, that the Indians meditated, not only resistance to the demand for the surrender of the murderers, (which *talks* with some of the frontier commanders had taught them to expect,) but the seizing and holding the territory, "the debateable land," which they had already twice or thrice ceded to the United States. Accounts here gave the number of warriors at between 600 and 800, who had already ascended the river towards Rock Island. The detachment of Gen. Atkinson arrived at Rock Island about the 12th April, and there ascertained, that on that day, or the day before or after, the Indians had entered the mouth of Rock River, and were ascending it.

The General also received correct and undoubted information of their numbers and condition. Different traders and others had carefully counted them, and reported the number of efficient warriors to be about 650, consisting of the British band (the Black Hawk's) the friends of the war party who had committed the murders at Prairie des Chiens, and about 120 Kickapoos. They were subsequently joined, on Rock River, by the Prophet's band. About 450 of this force was mounted; and it is but doing them justice to say, that they were very efficient cavalry, armed with good guns, spears, and tomahawks, on well trained horses; they never, it is believed, came in contact with our mounted force *(both parties mounted)* that the Indians did not come off the victors, whatever might be the disparity of numbers. Under their intention of holding the country, the Indians had brought with them their families, and their moveables of every description. They had said to many traders, that they were "going to keep possession of their old hunting grounds, and would *never* turn their faces to the west again; that they would not strike the first blow, but that if the Americans attempted to drive them back, they were *able and willing* to give the whites *war to their hearts' content.*" Accordingly, their course up the Mississippi and Rock River was, for some time, marked with great forbearance and moderation.

General Atkinson immediately summoned such of the chiefs of the nation as had not participated in the movement—at the head of whom was *Pask-e-paw-ko, Waw-pel-to,* and *Ke-o-kuck,* demanded of them such of the murderers as were within their power, and warned them of the consequences which would result to them on their joining or aiding the invading bands. The murderers (three being all within the control of these chiefs) were promptly surrendered, and the General was assured of the fidelity of the chiefs towards the government of the United States. The conference was ended by an order from the Gen-

eral for the friendly Indians to return to their homes west of the Mississippi, and remain there.

Two messengers, one a friendly Sauk chief, the son of *Taye-mah*, and the other a half-breed, whose father was a Frenchman, and his mother a Sauk woman, were despatched to the Black Hawk, by Gen. A. not only officially ordering him and his people (in the name of the President) to return, but individually advising him of the consequences of his persisting in his present enterprise. The demand for the surrender of the murderers was also made.

Up to this time it appeared to have been the general belief among the officers of the army, as it certainly was the opinion of the writer of this, that the Indians, almost always "more sinned against than sinning," would, under the forbearing, dignified and determined course pursued by the General, be brought to a sense of their conduct and situation, and induced to comply with the demands of the government. But we were soon undeceived; the messengers returned, greatly alarmed, after having been abused and insulted, and compelled to escape at the risk of their lives. They brought from the Indians the most insolent and bullying replies to the General's message—generally, in amount, ridiculing his demands, and challenging the Americans to come against them. About this time, also, Henry Gratiot, Esq. the sub-agent for the Winnebagoes of the mining country, obeying the impulse of his duty, intrepidly proceeded to the Black Hawk's camp, (near the Prophet's village) for the purpose of holding a council with the chiefs, to ascertain their object, and to warn them to return. The Indians not only refused to hear him, but tore down his American flag, erected the British flag, and took Mr. G. prisoner. There is little doubt that his fate would have been sealed, but for the interposition of the Winnebagoes, who *purchased* him of the Sauks, and restored him to liberty. We also learned, that the Sauks and Foxes had been instigated to their present course by the Prophet, (*Waw-be-ka-schick*) or the "*white cloud*," a half Winnebagoe and half Sauk, and possessing much influence with both nations from his assumption of the sacred character, from his talents, his inveterate hostility to the Americans, and his cold-blooded cruelty.

General Atkinson, an officer possessing all the requisites for command—military skill, undaunted courage and perseverance, together with a knowledge of the Indian character, now commenced vigorous preparations for a campaign. He ordered such troops as could, with safety, be called from Forts Crawford and Leavenworth, to reinforce him; and was, in consequence, joined at Rock Island by four companies of the 1st Infantry, and subsequently at Dixon's Ferry, by two more companies of the 6th regiment from Fort Leavenworth. He took

measures for collecting provisions and stores, and means for their transportation; a work of exceeding difficulty under all the circumstances, but in the execution of which he would doubtless have encountered greater delays, but for the efficient assistance derived from the different branches of the general staff. He notified the Governor of Illinois, (Reynolds) that the Indians had ascended Rock River, and entered the territories of the State in a hostile attitude. Lastly, the General took measures to secure the neutrality of the adjoining Indian nations, or should he deem it proper, their assistance. These preparations detained the troops at Rock Island three or four weeks, during much of which period, the weather was unusually cold and rainy, and our tents quite unfit for service, and useless as a shelter.

About the 9th day of May, provisions and boats having been collected, and a force of 1800 militia (1500 of whom were mounted) arrived, who had been ordered by Governor Reynolds to report themselves to the commander of the United States' troops; our force moved up Rock River; the regulars and a battalion of militia infantry under the command of Col. Taylor, 1st infantry and the mounted force under Brigadier Gen. Whitesides. Governor Reynolds accompanied this latter corps in person. The mounted brigade was ordered to proceed to the Prophet's village, about 30 or 40 miles by land, and 60 or 70 by water; while the regular force was charged with the severe and unpleasant duty of dragging up the river the provisions and stores for the whole, in boats, one a *keel* of 90 tons, one of 30 tons, and a number of Mackinac boats. It is unnecessary to describe this duty, further than to say, that the weather was cold; and that for many days the troops, so employed, had not a dry thread on them; compelled to wade against a rapid stream, dragging or lifting the boats along, from daybreak until night. On our arrival at the Prophet's village, it was found that the mounted militia had advanced to Dixon's Ferry. About 30 miles below the last named point, an express informed our commander of the defeat of a battalion of the militia, under Major Stillman; and the troops were hastened forward with all possible despatch. At Dixon's Ferry, about 120 miles from the Mississippi, (by water) we learned the particulars of the *first* affair.

Major Stillman, commanding a volunteer battalion of Illinois militia, who had joined Governor Reynolds at Dixon's Ferry, and never been for a moment under the orders of Gen. Atkinson, had been detached by the Governor, at his own solicitation, to endeavour to ascertain the position of the Indians.—Deceived by some individuals, who assured him that they had reconnoitred the country for 45 miles above Whiteside's camp, and that there were no Indians within that distance, Stillman

encamped an hour before sunset, at 25 miles from Dixon's, in a well-chosen position, on a stream, since called *Stillman's run*. Very soon after pitching tents and unsaddling, some Indians were discovered on the open prairie, at a mile or two distance. The camp entirely filled a small open wood, which was on every side surrounded by open and clear prairie, slightly undulating; the strongest fortress could hardly have been more efficiently defended against a savage force than the camp in question, where an hundred men *ought* to have repulsed ten times their numbers of an attacking force. On the discovery of the Indians, (only two or three in number) the militia sallied out, as all agree, in great confusion—some with saddles, and some without, and pursued and *captured* these Indians. Some one called out that three or four others were in sight; on which another pursuit occurred, in still greater disorder: the last Indians were overtaken, and two of them killed, it is said *unresistingly* and *without provocation*. In a few minutes others were descried advancing; their numbers, no doubt, appeared in the dusk of the evening much greater than they really were, and a panic seized the whites. "*Sauva qui peut*," was the word; or rendered into backwood English, "the devil take the hindmost!" and the whole corps fled, without firing a well-directed shot. They passed, running directly through their camp, plunged into the creek, and did not halt until they arrived at Dixon's, where they came straggling in for twenty hours. Twelve of the whites and four of the Indians, including those first wantonly slain, were killed. It is asserted by the enemy that this route was caused by less than one hundred Indians, and the pursuit continued through the night by less than thirty. There were doubtless many gallant fellows in Stillman's corps, and it is difficult to account for this, as well as other similar affairs, between the whites and the Indians, save by attributing it to want of discipline, and of mutual confidence among themselves.

The army continued their advance up Rock River to *Stillman's run*, having left the defeated corps to guard the sick, wounded and provisions at the *depôt* at Dixon's. At Stillman's run, Gen. Atkinson was overtaken by an express, with intelligence that the corps left to guard the *depôt* had determined to abandon their charge and *return home*. He also ascertained that the enemy had moved rapidly up Sycamore Creek, (called by the Indians "*Kish-waw-kee*") towards its head. The mounted force (now about 2,000) was despatched in pursuit, and the regular infantry ordered to occupy the *depôt* at Dixon's Ferry. Whitesides accordingly moved up Sycamore Creek, with his command for two or three days, pursuing, without however being able to get sight of the enemy. The next intelligence from this corps, received by the General, gave the information that they had pro-

ceeded across the country to the Illinois River, and disbanded themselves, or been discharged. This was said to have been brought about from some cause connected with the local political parties of the State.

The General, with his staff, immediately proceeded across the country, to the Illinois River, and by much exertion succeeded in inducing a few companies of mounted men to volunteer to assist in protecting the settlements.

Within a few hours after the General's departure, intelligence arrived at the Ferry, by expresses, that the enemy had struck the settlements at different points, 80 or 90 miles apart, and committed butcheries with all the accustomed horrors of Indian warfare. On the same day, the report of a few mounted men of the disbanded militia, who arrived, induced the serious apprehension, that the General had been cut off in his journey across the country. Fortunately our fears proved to be without foundation. Among the sufferers, the fate of no one excited more sympathy than that of Felix St. Vrain, Esq. Indian Agent for the Sauks and Foxes, who had accompanied the army to Dixon's Ferry, where he had obtained leave to return and secure his family at Rock Island. On his way to Galena, with a party of seven men, they were attacked by a large party of Indians commanded by the Prophet, and Mr. St. Vrain and three others most barbarously murdered; the others made their escape.

By indefatigable exertions Gen. Atkinson succeeded, in less than three weeks, in calling out a new militia mounted force, (for it was already found that the war could not be successfully prosecuted against a well-mounted enemy, by infantry alone,) in organizing it anew, and in procuring provisions and *land* transportation for a new movement.

In the meantime, however, several little affairs occurred.—Two companies of regular troops, with a company of mounted men, had been despatched to Kellogg's Grove, for the purpose of occupying the country between Rock and Fever Rivers, and dispersing a party of the enemy known to be lurking therein. While there, the Indians, who daily watched the movements of this detachment and the different portions of it, in their various excursions, carefully avoided the regular troops; but seizing their opportunity, they attacked the militia on their return to the camp, and beat them, killing three of their number. The Indians lost four. After remaining at Kellogg's Grove ten days, this party was ordered in, and it was replaced by a battalion of militia 250 strong, commanded by Major Dement. This battalion, the day after their arrival at the position, were attacked and defeated by 130 Indians under command of the *Black Hawk*, who drove the whites into their stockade, and besieged them, until relieved by Gen. Pozey with the residue of the brigade, when the Indians leisurely withdrew.—

About this time, also, Gen. Dodge, (now Col. Dodge of the United States' Dragoons) with a party of 28 mounted men, learned that certain murders had been committed in the neighborhood of Fort Hamilton, and pursued the murderers. Dodge and his party overtook the enemy, (who they found to be a party of fifteen Sauks,) and after a sharp conflict, killed every one of them with loss of three whites.

On the 28th June, the army again advanced on the enemy. Our force consisted of upwards of 400 regular infantry, and Henry's brigade of [illegible] mounted militia. Brig. Gen. Brady, of the United States' Army, had in the mean time joined, and by order of Gen. A. assumed command of this division of regulars and militia. A company of regulars were left to guard the *depôt* at Dixon's Ferry, and Pozey's and Alexander's brigades detached and disposed so as to protect the settlements. On the third July we found ourselves in the neighborhood of the enemy, who however occupied an inaccessible position, in a swamp a few miles from us. They had retired before us, and in several instances we found in their camps scalps and *heads* previously taken and left in triumph. They also for several days, left in their camps a sort of *guide-post*, with a wisp of hay done up, and so fixed as to indicate their direction. This, however, was mere bravado, as they avoided a conflict, though it was eagerly sought by the army. The force of the enemy, at this time, could not have been far from 1,000 efficient warriors, nearly all mounted.

Our marching had become exceedingly disagreeable and difficult; wading through swamps and morasses; our provisions and baggage on pack-horses, frequently damaged and falling short by the horses sinking in the swamps. Every exertion had been made to procure guides, but in vain. Such Winnebagoes or Pottawattomies as joined us or could be taken, were either ignorant or treacherous.

On the 6th July we reached a deep and muddy stream, called, most inaptly, *white water*, beyond which, we were informed by the Winnebagoes, we should find the enemy. With much difficulty we forded or swam this stream, or rather the first of its three branches; and after a perplexing march of twelve or fifteen miles, we arrived where the friendly Indians assured the General with one voice, that further advance was impossible, having arrived, as they said, and as it appeared, at a *wilderness* of that description of morass called by the French *terre tremblante*. We had no resource but to retrace our march, for the purpose of reaching and crossing Rock River, to reach the enemy by moving up the other bank. Arrived again at the mouth of White water, the mounted force under Generals Henry and Dodge was despatched with the pack horses to Fort Winnebago for provisions.

Under these vexations and disappointments, we had the satisfaction of knowing that our enemy were completely besieged; cut off from all their resources. Gen. Atkinson knew that they must soon be driven by famine to give us battle or to retreat from their present position, when he had little doubt of overtaking them. He, therefore, took such measures as prevented their escape. To enable a company to guard our provisions and sick, when we should again advance, a stockade was erected, which was called *Fort Kosh-ko-nong*. Here we learned by despatches from Major Gen. Scott to our commander, of the arrival of that officer with his troops at Chicago, and that the "Asiatic cholera" was raging among them:—this was the first intimation any individual of our command had received of the existence of this disease on this continent. We also received other disagreeable and mortifying intelligence through the public prints and from *other sources*—the censure conveyed in insinuations and inuendoes by certain prints; the information from private letters; and perhaps the *tone* of official despatches, all gave us too clearly to understand, that thus far for our toil, exposure, and exertions, we had received nothing but censure; how unjustly, every individual of the army knew and felt.

On the arrival of the provisions, a new guide (an Indian chief,) was procured, who promised to conduct the army to the enemy's camp; his services were gladly accepted, and the army once more advanced, through the swamps, in the direction of the enemy. When again within a few hours march of them, the night set in, with the most tremendous storm of rain and wind, thunder and lightning, that the writer ever witnessed. Before morning, an officer overtook us with information from Gen. Henry, that the enemy had retreated,by crossing Rock River, and that the mounted corps of Henry and Dodge, having fallen on the fresh trail of the retreating Indian army, had taken that trail in pursuit, after despatching the express to Gen. Atkinson. Instantly we commenced our retrograde movement again; that evening arrived at Fort Kosh-ko-nong: the next day passed round *Lake Kosh-ko-nong*, and forded Rock River below the Lake.

Our marches were now forced and severe. One day we marched, it is believed, near twenty miles, during a hot day, without water. Before the arrival of the army at the Wisconsin, we were met by the intelligence that Henry and Dodge had come up with and attacked the rear of the enemy near the river, and defeated it. Rafts were forthwith constructed at the Wisconsin, and the army crossed that river, at a small place called Helena, on the 27th July; and within two hours afterwards struck the trail of the enemy. Their trail gave evidence that their numbers must be considerable. Their order of march

was in three parallel columns. Over the dry prairie, the route of each column was worn from two to six inches in the earth; and where the ground was such as for a moment to interrupt their regular order of march, their trail appeared like an ordinary road which had been travelled for years, wanting only the tracks of wheels.

From this time until we reached the Mississippi, we continued without deviation to follow the trail of the enemy, having no other guide; and it led, doubtless with a view of baffling the army, over such a country as, I venture to say, has seldom been marched over: at one moment ascending hills, which appeared almost perpendicular; through the thickest forest; then plunging through morasses; fording to our necks, creeks and rivers; passing defiles, where a hundred resolute men might repulse thousands, whatever their courage or capacity; next clambering up and down mountains perfectly bald, without so much as a bush to sustain a man. It was in this march that our infantry regained their confidence in their own powers, which (lacking the powers of rapid locomotion to make a dash against the enemy,) had been somewhat impaired early in the campaign. They far outmarched the horsemen, nearly all of whose horses were broken down.

The enemy were under the impression that it was impossible for us to follow them; and to that error we probably owe our ultimate success in overtaking them, or at least in bringing them to action, on grounds of equality. We, each day, made two of their day's marches, and passed one or two of their camps. We frequently passed their dead, who, exhausted by wounds or fatigue, had expired, and fallen from their horses: on the 1st August we passed the bodies of eleven. A little before sunset that day, we learned from a prisoner that the enemy were but a few miles in advance of us. Up to this time, not a man of the army knew where we were, save that we were north of the Wisconsin, and on the enemy's track. We marched until after dark, hastily encamped, slept two or three hours, when reveillee beat, and we were again in march before daybreak on the 2nd August.

At a little after sunrise, we discovered the curtain of mist hanging over the Mississippi, and the scouts in advance (a detachment of Dodge's corps) announced the vicinity of the enemy. We were halted for an instant, our knapsacks and baggage thrown off, and our pack horses left. We then advanced rapidly into the timbered land; and the occasional shots in advance confirmed the report of the scouts. This firing was from a select rear-guard of the enemy, about seventy in number.

Our order of battle was promptly arranged, under the personal supervision of Gen. Atkinson; the centre composed of

the regular troops, about 380 in number, and Dodge's corps, about 150; the right, of the remains of Pozey's and Alexander's brigades, probably in all 250 men; the left, of Henry's brigade, in number not far from 400 men. This last was, throughout the campaign, a most excellent militia brigade, and well commanded. The army advanced by heads of companies, over a space of two or three miles. At length, after descending a bluff, almost perpendicular, we entered a bottom thickly and heavily wooded, covered also with much under-brush and fallen timber, and overgrown with rank weeds and grass; plunged through a bayou of stagnant water, our men as usual holding up their arms and cartridge boxes. A moment after, we heard the yells of the enemy; closed with them, and the action commenced.

As I have already been more prolix than I had intended, I refer your readers to the official account of the battle. Suffice it to say, that quarters were in no instance asked or granted. The official reports give the number of killed of the enemy, at 150; though doubtless many were killed in the river and elsewhere, whose bodies were never seen afterwards. Our loss was but 27, among whom was one officer, Lieut. Bowman, a gallant fellow of Henry's brigade. This disparity of loss was probably owing to the rapid charge made by our troops on the enemy, giving them time to deliver but one confused fire.—About 150 horses were taken or killed. The Black Hawk, the Prophet, and some other chiefs escaped from the action, but were brought in by the Winnebagoes, and the friendly portion of the Sauks, and ultimately delivered to the commanding general.

After the action, 100 Sioux warriors presented themselves, and asked leave to pursue on the trail of such of the enemy as had escaped. This was granted, and the Sioux, after two days pursuit, overtook and killed 50 or 60, mostly, it is feared, women or children.

The afternoon previous to the action, the steamboat *Warrior*, on her return from the Sioux villages above, with some officers and 20 or 30 soldiers of the United States' army, discovered the Indian army on the bank of the Mississippi, (exactly where General Atkinson subsequently attacked them,) engaged in constructing rafts, and other means of crossing the river. The enemy for some time endeavoured to decoy the steamboat to the shore, assuring those on board, that they (the Indians) were Winnebagoes, &c. A sharp skirmish was finally the result, in which several of the Indians were killed, and one soldier wounded. The Indian loss is differently reported by themselves at from 7 to 23. The steamboat returned to Prairie des Chiens, and arrived again opportunely at the close of the action the following day.

The troops moved down the river to Prairie des Chiens, where they were met by Maj. Gen. Scott, who with his staff had left the brigade at Chicago, prostrated by an enemy far more terrible than the savages—the *cholera*—and was hastening to take part in the campaign. The wounded were left at this place, and the army descended to Rock Island, where they arrived in fine health and spirits on the 9th August. Indeed, it is astonishing how perfectly healthy the troops had been, during much and great exposure to the ordinary causes of disease; up to this time, not a death from disease had occurred during the campaign, among the regular troops. They had borne, without the slightest murmur, their fatigues and privations, and scarcely an occasion for the most trifling punishment had been given, from the time the army took the field. It has never been the fortune of the writer, during a service of twenty years, to witness for a length of time, the conduct of any command so perfectly exemplary.

About the 20th August the troops from Chicago arrived, under the command of Col. Eustis, and were encamped about four miles from the command of General Atkinson. Poor fellows! we listened with sincere condolence to the tale of their wretched sufferings from disease; few of us imagining that we should call on them, so soon, to reciprocate our sympathy.

About the 26th August, a case of *cholera* exhibited itself; this was followed by several others, and the ravages of this shocking disease then became truly dreadful. The troops were encamped in wretched tents, in close order of encampment, and for several days of continued cold rain, the pestilence raged. Every man in camp could hear the groans and screams of each individual attacked by spasms, which added greatly to the horrors of the scene. During a very few days, 4 officers and upwards of 50 rank and file, out of about 300 infantry, became its victims. The rangers, also, (encamped near them) suffered severely. It is but rendering justice to Major Gen. Scott (then our commander) to say, that his conduct at Rock Island during the period of horrors, was worthy the hero of Chippewa, Fort George, and Niagara. By his example, exciting confidence and courage; fearlessly exposing himself to disease and death, in its most terrible form, in his attentions alike to the officer and the private soldier; while he enforced, with the most vigilant care, the strictest sanitary regulations. At length the troops were moved across the Mississippi, (not out of sight of their late camp) and the pestilence ceased.

The Indians sued for peace. A treaty was held at Rock Island, by which the whole country east of the Mississippi, called the mining district, and a large tract on the west bank, (probably in the whole about 8,000,000 acres) was ceded to the United States, and all the surviving insurgent chiefs of note

were to remain in confinement, as hostages, during the pleasure of the President.

And thus ended the Sauk war!

About the 28th September, the troops were ordered to their respective stations.

In the foregoing narrative, the writer is aware that he might have more interested his readers by details of individual scenes; but the fear of being insufferably prolix, has induced him to confine himself to a general account of the campaign, leaving the minutiæ to some future opportunity. He is aware, that in his views of causes and results, he must necessarily differ from some, but he believes this narrative will be acknowledged to be in the main correct.

H.

The communication which follows was forwarded anonymously, with a condition by the writer, "that if any part is published, the whole shall be." The only parts to which the editor would have objected are, the address to the President of the United States and the references to him individually, as inappropriate and not according to the style usually adopted in discussing subjects in a periodical work;—in newspapers, the custom is different. Had the editor been left at discretion, he would have omitted the first and last paragraphs and all references or address to the President. If it be desirable to bring to his notice any subject within the scope of his authority, he is no doubt ready to listen to suggestions, and to apply the remedy where needed.

The remarks of a writer would be quite as likely to attract the notice of those, whose attention it is desirable to draw to a subject, if made in general terms, as if addressed individually.

These observations are offered, not only with reference to the communication in question, but to the ordinary course recommended to be pursued by writers in similar cases.

The evils and inconveniences of which the writer complains are feelingly described, and in such a way too, as to leave little or no doubt that he has himself witnessed them. His suggestions are well deserving of, and it is hoped may receive, consideration from those who have the power to apply the corrective.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

THE ARMY.

To the President of the United States.

Sir—Believing you cannot feel indifferent to the interests of a profession with which a large share of your distinguished fame is identified, an humble member thereof is emboldened to bring to your especial notice a subject over which you only

can take a controlling cognizance, as with you only lies the remedial power to check the evil of which the writer is about to complain.

There are many matters appertaining to the Army, calling loudly for a supervising and reforming attention, most of which had their origin in a remote day, and under peculiar circumstances. Of these, there are some owing their present existence to the absence of *individual* concernment in them, how large soever may be that of the *public;* while others find support in *personal* interest and guardianship manifested in the frequent and loud expression of opinion on the part of those who are benefitted. Among the first class may be numbered the Articles of War, and several other enactments relative to the Military establishment. Of these, it is not the intention of the writer to speak; for however satisfied in his own mind of their susceptibility of, and indeed the necessity of their amendment, he deems the subject as too nearly a judicial one to warrant a gratuitous offer of *his* opinions. Among the second class may be enumerated certain alleged rights and privileges of persons and of corps; such, for example, as the *right* of a senior to a separate command, although the *interest of the Government* may require that a junior should have such command; such as the *claim* to promotion by virtue of seniority, when the *interest of Government* requires it to be otherwise; (see complaints about recent appointments in the Ordnance and Dragoons); and when, indeed, the practice of promoting by seniority, so far from finding its origin in a *right*, owes its existence to the beneficent *supposition* by Government that the senior, *as such, is best fitted* for advancement; and, again; such as the *claim* of particular arms of service, to a particular class of posts, &c. It is the object of this article to ascertain the basis and strength of this *last* mentioned pretension, as it of all has heretofore attracted the least attention. The other subjects of this second class, embracing some not stated, although not definitely settled, and *beyond question* by regulations, as they should be, are yet from frequent *practical* construction approximating to a sound decision. Such is not the fact, however, with the point to which your attention is invited; for although long acquiescence in a certain routine or distribution may seem to have put the matter to rest, it can be shown beyond doubt, if necessary, that such acquiescence by one at least of the parties concerned, did not grow out of any conviction that justice was fully meted out to them; but, that, it had its origin in that chivalric, soldier-like feeling which forbade personal considerations being opposed to public arrangements, and which looked to *un*-importuned authority for its due, rather than to loud complaints, however just, or written memorials, however able—a course that would not now be departed from, but that the wri-

ter is prepared to show that *public* considerations as well as interests of a personal character call for a reform in the matter now to be examined.

In a series of years past the Artillery and Infantry of the Army have been distributed, the former on the sea-coast in the several fortifications, and the latter on the Indian frontier, for the most part in temporary cantonments—the former amidst the enjoyment of luxuries, the pleasures of society, the repose of peace—the latter often remote from comfort, far distant from friends, and frequently engaged in warfare with the savage. During the long period of this distribution but one or two changes have been made affecting the Artillery, and these involving no privations, no fatigues; while the Infantry, almost without an exception, have been year after year, employed either in constructing cantonments, opening roads, changing posts, or warring with Indians. The Artillery, not thankful that they have so long enjoyed undisturbed by their brethren of the Infantry the advantages they have possessed, have at length asserted as a *right* what they should have esteemed themselves fortunate in having the opportunity of acknowledging as a *favour*, and in the plenitude of fancied security, have claimed the *fee simple*, forgetting that they are in fact but mere *tenants at will*.

"The fortifications," say they, "are the appropriate stations of the Artillery, and should be exclusively garrisoned by them—what would the Infantry do in them?"

Is this exclusive right to garrison the fortifications founded in law? They cannot pretend it. From the organization of the first corps of Artillery in 1790, after the adoption of the Constitution, to the present moment, not a word is to be found on our statute books to sustain such a position. Does it grow out of the peculiar adaptation of their acquirements to the particular armament of fortifications? As there would be some *plausibility* in an affirmative answer we will endeavour to ascertain whether it possesses any thing more. What then are the duties *performed* by the Artillery, and where and how do they acquire a knowledge of them? It is almost superfluous to remark that the *habitual* duties of the Artillery are those of Infantry, and that the Artillery duties are merely *occasional*. The latter consist in the exercise of the piece, in loading and firing it, and about once in a twelve month at a very few of the posts in the discharge of a few shells. These duties are acquired and performed, first, by officers educated at the Military School; and secondly, by men promiscuously enlisted for the Army at large. Are they such as could not be learned and performed by officers and men of Infantry? Obviously, not; for the officers of Infantry go through the same course of instruction at the Military Academy, that officers of Artillery do,

and the men of the two arms of service being indiscriminately selected from the recruiting depot for the several corps, those of neither can be said to possess greater aptitude for learning a particular description of tactics than those of the other; nay, further, the *fact* is, and it is a stubborn one too, that *these very Artillery duties*, the throwing of shells probably excepted, *are actually performed by our Infantry*, at their several stations, where, as is generally the case, they have been furnished with the proper means. Where then is the greater fitness of the Artillery for service in the fortifications under existing circumstances? We think we have shown it does not exist, and we will go further and say, that owing to the system of instruction the Government has wisely directed to be pursued, the peculiar fitness of one description of force *to a very great degree* for a particular description of duty is not expected. Our Army being small it has been an object with the Executive to make the several parts of it acquainted measurably with the duties of all the parts. This is manifest in the instruction of the Artillery in Infantry tactics, and of the Infantry in Artillery duties, of Battalion companies in Light Infantry movements, and of Light Infantry and Rifle companies in the duties of battalion companies, of the Artillery in Ordnance services, and of the Ordnance officers in the Artillery duties; and finally, in the uniformity of the course of studies at the Military Institution at West Point. "What would Infantry do in the fortifications?" We answer—*precisely what the Artillery now do.* The question seems to imply that such a distribution would be a novel one. We grant that in our service it would, although we are not entirely without instances of such a disposition of the Infantry; but if we refer to the English and European services we will find that nothing more common. There is scarcely a colonial fortress of England to be named, that is not garrisoned by Infantry, and the practice in reference to those of France, Spain, and other nations having colonies, is equally a settled one.

Having, as we think, established our position, that there is nothing peculiar in the acquirements of the Artillery which make them in a peculiar degree better adapted to the service of the fortifications in time of peace than the Infantry, we will now proceed to our next position, viz:—that the *public* interest requires a change in the existing distribution of the troops.

We scarcely need remind *you*, Sir, whose opportunity of observing mankind have been so great, that the hope of improving their condition operates so continually and so powerfully on the minds of men, that it enters into all their calculations, and sustains them under every vicissitude of fortune; causing them to endure privations with patience, toil with cheerfulness, and danger without dismay—that, deprived of it, their zeal would

wither into indifference, their energy into feebleness, and their duties, once performed with alacrity, would assume the unpleasing shape of *tasks*. No profession or calling is exempt from the influence of this moral lever. That of arms is probably least affected by it, and yet, what actuates *him*, "i' the imminent danger of the deadly breach?" the desire for glory. Why o'er the pallid cheek of the expiring chieftain, as prostrate on the battle plain he views his conquered foe, passes that approving smile? It is, that with each faint, succeeding pulse, he feels he nears "the steep where Fame's proud temple stands afar," his glazed eye already beholding the honored niche that is destined to receive him. But the excitement of war past, what consolation carries he with him, who, when his country commands, hurries to burning climes, or distant wilds? It is the soothing reflection, that a few years over, he will return to meet the greeting smiles of expecting friends; that his services—his sufferings will be duly appreciated by his Government; and, finally, that having taken his share of privation, he will enjoy also his share of comfort and of ease! Tell him, however, as he commences his march for such inhospitable positions, that *he is to return no more, that there will be no relief to his sufferings*—and especially remind him, that *he has comrades, who, while he will be encountering never ending dangers and difficulties, will be permitted to enjoy equally lasting pleasures*—tell him this—and we ask, what but the iron hand of *necessity* would impel him to advance one step? Hard as such a case would doubtless be, we believe that there are, notwithstanding, many that may be found, even in our service, practically approximating to it, and that have had a decidedly injurious effect upon the public interests.

The Infantry at an early period, after the late war, was distributed on the inland frontier, and almost each succeeding year has added to the extreme remoteness of their exile positions. Some of the regiments have been affected more than others. The 7th for instance, has been something like ten years, 800 miles up the Arkansas; the 6th was about 8 years the same distance up the Missouri, 350 miles up which a part of it still remains; the 5th was for about the same period 2,000 miles up the Mississippi, where a portion of the 1st now is; the latter regiment having within the same time, as also the 3d, undergone every change of clime between the latitude of 30° and 45°. The 2d and 4th probably have been the most favoured, and yet some of their positions have been extremely remote, inclement, and insalubrious. During this long period of banishment (which, indeed, is only a portion of the whole term) not the least prospect has been held out of a relief; on the contrary, every change has had the effect of plunging them more deeply into the wilderness. That so discouraging prospects to

individuals should operate injuriously upon the *public* interests is not to be wondered at. Some of the most promising officers have abandoned, and more are now preparing to abandon the service in disgust—we repeat—*the most promising*, and of those who remain there are few who are not constrained by *necessity*. The young will not consent to waste their youth and manhood in the desert—the husband is unwilling to doom his wife to *perpetual* exile—and the father finds no facilities for the education of his children. Look, Sir, at the register of resignations, and you will discover how infinitely greater is the number from the Infantry than from the Artillery—and that nearly all of them are attributable to the causes we have stated, there can be no question.

There is another view of this case in which it is also discoverable that the public interests suffer. The positions to which we have alluded in being distant from society, and many from civilization, are of course also remote from the healthful influence of public opinion, and the absence of the latter, it cannot be denied, has had a tendency to impair the morals of many who otherwise would have proved an ornament to their profession. It is a sage remark of the author of "Lacon," that *in Camp one's mind is improved at the risk of one's morals*. The sentiment is equally true of a monotonous garrison life in time of peace, wherein want of employment, when the mind is not well regulated, is too apt to prove food to foolish amusements which are destined soon to terminate in vicious indulgences. The youthful graduate of the Military Academy is peculiarly exposed to such deleterious circumstances. Just escaped from severe restraint, he throws a loose rein upon the neck of his conduct and imagination, trusting to his ability to draw it up for escape from a stumble or a fall. Unsuspicious, confident in the strength of his morals, he does not hesitate to do what he sees others do, and in the end, from the absence of good society, the little prospect of again mixing in it, and the want of intellectual amusements, he is seen to fall a prey to idle habits and bad example. Our distant western posts are peculiarly calculated for such unfortunate results, and those who escape them (and we are proud to acknowledge that there are a great many) show a strength of mind deserving of all commendation. The effects of these exile stations may therefore also be discovered in the register of deaths and dismissals, a large portion of which are doubtless the consequence of the circumstances to which we have had reference, and which the Government therefore has an interest, if it cannot destroy, in diminishing. One of the best means of effecting so desirable an object would unquestionably be a periodical relief of the western garrisons. The prospect of restoration to society and friends, would prove an incentive to the continuance of such

conduct as would be acceptable to society and friends, while the subjection again to public opinion would operate to check vice in its incipient state, and might even lead to reformation in cases that would otherwise prove hopeless. To say that none but the weak and the worthless would yield to such circumstances as we have adverted to, would be an error, for even in situations affording infinitely fewer temptations, judicial wisdom—scholastic love—morality itself, have been known to bend, to break, and finally, to fall.

If we compare the practice of our service in reference to the subject under consideration with that of others, we will find that our's probably is the only nation that requires of *one* portion of its troops a series of disagreeable services without any prospect of a respite. England not only affords relief at stated periods to her distant forces, but grants to her troops on certain stations peculiarly unpleasant, an increase of their pay; and in periodical changes of corps, France and other European powers, are equally considerate. And yet, there is scarcely a Colonial post of either of those nations that operates so completely as a banishment, as do three-fourths of those of this country, on a cordon stretching from the Sault de St. Marie to the mouth of the Sabine.

Having now, Sir, as we hope, established our positions, viz: first, that there are no peculiar reasons why the Artillery should in time of peace exclusively garrison the fortifications, and, secondly, that the *public* interest requires a change in the present distribution of the Army, we will conclude by urgently and respectfully calling your attention to the subject.

All which is respectfully submitted.

W.

P. S. We omitted to mention in the proper place, that there are other positions besides the fortifications, to which the Artillery seem to have laid equal claim, and with still less reason. We allude to certain Barracks and Arsenals on the sea-board. Surely the duties being simply those of PROTECTION, the Infantry are not less adequate to them than are the Artillery.

We may probably be told that the Artillery occupy the Arsenals for the purposes of instruction in Ordnance duties. Such is the *theory*, we know. Practically, however, the truth is otherwise; for at most of the Arsenals there are not the means of making even a rocket.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

STRICTURES

ON THE "RULES AND ARTICLES OF WAR."

Among the other objects to which the Military and Naval Magazine is devoted, I conceive it offers a medium by which any errors or discrepancies, which time or inadvertence may have suffered to creep into the service, may be remedied or obviated; provided such strictures are expressed in a spirit of candor and temperance.

The writer of this has served some fourteen years in the service, a portion of which time he has devoted to the study of the Civil and Military Laws of his country; and therefore may fairly be presumed not to be ignorant of the practical operation of those laws to his profession. With this preface and your permission, Mr. Editor, I propose to offer to the public, a few brief strictures on the "Rules and Articles of War." By the "2nd Article of War," all officers and soldiers are earnestly recommended, &c. to attend divine service, and for any *indecent* or *irreverent* behavior at such place of divine worship, a commissioned officer shall be brought before a General Court Martial, there to be publicly and severely reprimanded by the President. Non-commissioned officers or soldiers so offending, shall for the *first* be fined *one sixth of a dollar*, and so on. Now, I cannot believe the Legislature views such offences as less criminal than drunkenness or disrespect to a superior, (which are punished with greater severity by the same laws,) nor can I for a moment suppose they intended indirectly to encourage such gross misconduct. How, then, shall we reconcile the inadequate and conflicting punishments awarded in these different cases? I can only suppose that they were hastily and inadvertently copied from the British articles of war, enacted subsequently to the restoration of Charles II. The punishment of such offences should be placed on the same footing with other criminal or capital crimes, or left to the good sense and discretion of a Court Martial.

In the 9th Article of War, the expression "superior officer" is made use of. In reviewing the proceedings of a Court Martial, held at Fort Leavenworth, (in 1826 or 1827) for the trial of a soldier who had killed or murdered a *sergeant*, the then President of the United States decided, that the words were applicable to *commissioned officers only*. This I believe to be strictly and legally a correct decision. The custom and practice of service, previous to this, (if I am rightly informed) had construed this differently, and made the article applicable to the

killing or murdering a non-commissioned officer. As the article now stands, there is no adequate *military* punishment for the highest of military and civil crimes.

Under the 45th Article, it has been held by many Courts Martial, that an officer must be in charge of some guard, party, &c. and a soldier on some specific duty, such as guard-duty, a fatigue-party, roll-call, &c. before they come within the meaning of the words of the article. This I hold to be incorrect. I contend that all officers and soldiers, (though they should be on a leave of absence, as well as doing duty with their companies and regiments) though not on any *particular* detail or duty, are still in a military and moral sense, amenable by the article, more especially the former, who should be at all times an example of rectitude to the soldier. It cannot be supposed that such gross misconduct should be passed over unnoticed, merely because the delinquent was not on some specific detail. An officer, strictly speaking, *is always on duty*. It is true the 99th Article removes this difficulty in *minor offences*, but the 45th, in its application to commissioned officers, is only cognizable before a General Court Martial.

The 46th Article awards *death*, &c. to any *sentinel* who shall be found sleeping on his *post*. This, according to my view of the case, is inconsistent with the preceding article; and simply for the reason that drunkenness may be (and is 9 in 10 times) the cause of this criminal neglect of duty; and it therefore rests with the officer who prefers the charge (and detects the offender) to say whether he shall be tried for *drunkenness*, or sleeping *on post;* the one a *minor*, and the other a *capital military crime*. A soldier may be both drunk and asleep on his post. This has the bad effect, (from mistaken lenity) of evading the 46th Article; it being often disregarded. It would be infinitely better for the service, that drunkenness, which is the *cause* and *source of all military crimes in the soldier*, (such as *desertion* and *mutiny*) should be placed among the *higher* military crimes, and punished with greater certainty and severity, than it is at present.

In conclusion, I offer the following suggestions to the proper departments.

1*st*—That hereafter the Sutlers should be prohibited the selling of sugar and coffee, as well as all *vinous* or *malt liquors*, to the soldiers.

2*nd*—That whenever a soldier is confined under charges, the articles of sugar and coffee (which now form a component part of his rations) should be *stopped;* unless prescribed by the surgeon, and sanctioned by the commanding officer of the post. The results proposed to be attained by these suggestions, are these:—By the prohibition of the sale of sugar and coffee by the Sutler, the soldier will be deprived of one of the principal

means of barter for whiskey or liquor, with those *pests* of all military garrisons, (discharged soldiers and outlawed citizens) by which they are invariably surrounded.

By the 2nd suggestion there will be a greater *difference* than there is now in the *comfort* and *living* of the good and faithful soldier, and the *prisoner* and *convict*. Indeed I would allow the issue of *fresh meat* but once or twice a month. Bread and water the rest of the time.

GERMANICUS.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CLIMATE

of

THE SOUTH WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

[*Concluded from page* 251.]

General observations on the climate of a country like Peru, are necessarily indefinite; we will therefore confine our further remarks on the seasons, temperature, &c. of the Valley of the Rimac, which contains Lima, the capital city, and Calloa the most frequented port. This valley is situated in 12° S. Latitude, very near the centre of the northern and southern direction of Maritime Peru, and exhibits all the beauty and peculiarity of the seasons. Its breadth varies from 7 to 20 miles, and length from 10 to 25. Branches from the main chain of the mountains, come down to the suburbs of Lima; they are separated above the city, forming that part of the valley called Lurigaucho. The Rimac, a small mountain stream, descends gently through the valley, to open into the Bay of Callao. It passes and supplies Lima with water, and was formerly distributed over the adjacent country in canals for irrigation.

This valley bears traces of having been under high cultivation; the ruins of extensive water courses, and well arranged fields are evidences of its former prosperity. Its soil is alluvial and extremely fertile, capable of yielding an almost unbroken succession of crops. But the want of industry and enterprise, has converted the most enviable advantages of soil and climate into sources of positive evil. The canals for irrigation are broken and neglected, and allow the waters when the river is swollen, to spread over the country, and form pools and morass.

The productiveness of the fields is spent in luxurious crops of weeds and wild plants, which decaying under a tropical sun, fill the atmosphere with malaria. The seasons of Lima may be distinguished into clear and cloudy, instead of rainy and dry. As vegetation is perennial—an unceasing succession of inflorescence and fructification—the advance of spring is known by the lifting of the fogs, and the presence of the sun, rather than by the reviving energies of the vegetable kingdom. After the September equinox the south wind, having more easting than in Chili, begins to freshen in the afternoon, and continues until midnight. It is very damp, and deposites those heavy dews called guara, which are the substitutes of rain. The temperature of the day begins to increase, while that of the night continues at the winter degree, and it is not until November, that the sun has advanced far enough south, to enable his rays to penetrate the mist and raise the heat permanently beyond that of the preceding months. The thermometer ranges between 60° and 65°, but the warmth is not at all inconvenient, nor calls for a change of the winter clothing.

The summer is at its height in January, and its softness and beauty, realize the glowing descriptions which have been given of the Peruvian climate. The mass of vapours which darkened the air during winter, are now scattered over the heavens in light clouds, softening the glare of the sun, and tempering its heat. The nights "bringing skies thickly strewn with constellations," are balmy and mild, and the atmosphere filled with the fragrance of flowers and orange groves, is soft and delightful to the feelings. The summer temperature is about 80°, but it is not oppressive or sultry—with the exception of a few days, the latter part of January, when calms prevail, there is always a pleasant breeze fresh from the sea to moderate the fierceness of solar heat. Persons of delicate constitution, are scarcely under the necessity of throwing off their woollen clothing, unless exposed to the sun, or in travelling.

Evaporation goes on with the greatest activity at this period. The vapour drawn from the ocean is rarified, and lifted to the higher atmosphere: the south wind impels it against the colder region of the Cordilleras, where it is condensed into the heavy rains which occur there throughout the summer. The warmer the summer on the coast, the more severe the rains in the mountains, is the observation of all who are acquainted with the country. The electric fluid finds its equilibrium in the same region; however great its accumulation in the valley, it appears to encounter none of an opposite character, until it is drawn to the mountain, where it is discharged in storms of thunder and lightning.

Earthquakes, the terrible phenomena that counterbalance the advantages of a serene and stormless climate, occur most fre-

quently during the variable days of October and November, and in the heats of summer.

In March, April, and May, the misty weather returns; a fresh breeze set in towards evening, as the sun proceeds north, and the nights become cold and damp. It is very remarkable that the nights at this period are clear, while the days are obscured by dense fogs;—towards the end of May, however, the clouds thicken, and the mists extend through the night. This is a very uncomfortable season; the air is chilly and unpleasant to the feelings. Exposure is dangerous, materials for malaria are abundant, as the first fruits of the fields have come to perfection, and are decaying. The prevailing diseases of the country are more readily taken, and are severer in their character. In June, the weather becomes more pleasant for a few days, the sun shines for some hours, the dampness is diminished, and the temperature is rather agreeable. But this state of things does not continue. In July, the dark, damp days which make for their winter have fairly commenced. The thermometer sinks to 59° or 60°. The sun does not make his appearance for several days together; sometimes he struggles through the mist for a few hours at mid day, but it is with pale and cheerless beam.

The dews at night have the effect, if not the form of rain—they penetrate thick clothing, and moisten the earth sufficiently to revive vegetation with tropical vigour. Persons on board of ships in the harbour of Callao, require the thickest awnings to protect them from these dews; for the temperature of the water on the coast, being generally a degree or two lower than the land, the precipitation commences early in the day, and is more abundant than on shore. There is frequently found a breeze from the N. E. during winter. It is a land wind, and its existence is not opposed to the opinion that there is one uniform ærial current along the coast. It takes place in the calm days of March and July, commencing before day light, and ceasing about 10 A. M. thus proving clearly that it arises from local causes. If this prevailed for any length of time, and had sufficient force, rain and the electrical phenomena would be as frequent as in Alto Peru. It brings an atmosphere elastic and buoyant, altogether different from the usual one, and dissipating the mist, for a while allows the sun to appear through the intervals of dense masses of clouds.

We cannot conclude these views of the climate, without noticing earthquakes; their devastations and frequent occurrence more than counterbalance the exemption from storms. It is necessary to experience a severe shock in places where the inhabitants have suffered, to appreciate the terror and consternation they occasion. Men and animals are wild with fear; the streets are filled with persons flying they know not whither;

and their shrieks of terror are scarcely less appalling than the mysterious noise accompanying the convulsion of the earth.

The whole line of the coast is subject to them; all the principal cities have at one period or another been visited, and nearly ruined. Callao, the sea port of Lima, was totally destroyed by an earthquake, and its accompanying inundation, in 1746. In 1806, the Valley of the Rimac was again convulsed. The shock took place at 6 o'clock in the evening, and lasted for more than a minute. The earth appeared to move in undulations, the sea retired from the Bay of Callao, and rushed back with great force: several houses were overthrown in the city, and a number of persons lost their lives. It is a popular opinion that they are more frequent, but less violent than in former years; scarcely a year passes that there are not some smart shocks, with trembling of the earth, and a rumbling noise like distant thunder; but great convulsions are rare. In the absence of all positive knowledge as to the immediate cause of earthquakes, we will merely notice some of the attending circumstances.

They occur more frequently in the variable days of spring, at the breaking up of the foggy weather of winter, and at the conclusion of hot summers. They are expected under any abrupt changes of weather: in the settled days of winter or summer, they are not often experienced.

The revolutions of the day appear likewise to have an influence; the severest shocks have occurred at its close or opening. Long continued and heavy falls of rain in the mountains usually precede them, and not unfrequently they disturb the ordinary course of things on the coast, and are followed by rain, as was the case in the great convulsion in Chili, when the fall of rain, so entirely out of season, was scarcely less terrifying than the movements of the earth. It is a general belief in Lima, supported in a measure by experience, that violent earthquakes are periodical, having intervals of about half a century, and the dates of those that have occasioned the most destruction, lend a plausibility to the opinion. The dates of the greatest shocks are A. D. 1630, 1687, 1746, and 1806. The last one was anticipated and dreaded on the strength of this calculation; and the public mind since its occurrence, enjoys a partial security which it had not previous to that period.

Those who have paid attention to meteorology think that there is an aspect of the heavens in the clear nights of spring and fall, which indicates the approach of a shock. The stars seem to recede and even disappear, so as to leave dark spaces, and the usual brilliancy of the sky is diminished as if a dense medium was interposed. The most usual course of the earthquake is from S. to N. following the chain of the mountains. It is not felt at any considerable distance from the land, but in

the harbors, the waters are frequently disturbed, rising and falling suddenly.

In some instances the fish are destroyed, probably from the extrication of noxious air from the bottom.

In 1828, we observed the surface of Callao Bay covered with bubbles of air, with an odour not unlike Sulphuretted Hydrogen Gas, after a smart shock. The sensation to a person on board of ships, is very much as if she had touched, and was grinding over a sand bar. There is a jarring motion, and when the usual noise accompanies the shock, it still more resembles the veering away a chain cable.

It is very difficult to determine the kind of motion the earth has, unless the shock is moderate, and continues for some time. In some instances, the ground appears to move from under the feet, vibrating the while, as an elastic body, and again it is the concussion of a solid forced suddenly upwards by an impulse from below. The great earthquake in Chili, threw the houses forward, and left the ground permanently elevated above the water mark.

Noise does not always attend a shock; the most violent are often the most noiseless. It has frequently, and very aptly been compared to the rumbling of carriages over a pavement, or distant thunder. The comparison is deficient in one particular—the sound conveys no idea of distance, but that of an extremely rapid motion of which the spectator partakes.

The injury of severe earthquakes is not confined to the moment of visitation; the country suffers a long time from an interruption to its regular seasons, and from a diminution of the fertility of the soil. The grain harvests have repeatedly failed after severe shocks; and in some instances the fields have never recovered their productive powers.

Before speaking of the health enjoyed in the climate of Lima, it is necessary to glance at the habits and customs of the people. The evils of an insecure government, and low state of morals, are no where more apparent in their effect on the physical condition of man, than in this city. Situated in a plain, which has a gentle declivity to carry off all stagnant water, fanned by sea breezes, free from impurities, with a temperature that never touches the extremes of cold or heat, and without abrupt changes—with an abundant supply of water, led by canals through its principal streets, and a population by no means dense, we should consider it in the possession of all that could contribute to health and comfort. But misrule has converted all these enviable advantages into sources of disease, and rendered it one of the unhealthy places on the coast. There are a number of gardens within the walls; almost every respectable house has an orangery, and the numerous Convents, and public Institutions have groves of orange and other fruit

trees within their enclosures. The soil of these gardens is of exuberant fertility; leaves, flowers, and fruits in continual succession fall and decay, in an unrenewed atmosphere. These spots become sources of malaria, and are actively concerned in the production of the prevailing diseases.

The principal streets are intersected by canals, of perhaps a foot in breadth, and there being a considerable descent, a constant stream of fresh water might be kept running through them; but instead of contributing to the beauty and convenience of the inhabitants, they are allowed to convey filth and impurities of all kinds, and being broken or choked with weeds, after reaching the suburbs, they deposite the contents of houses, stables and sewers, for the benefit of vultures and dogs often within the walls. In regard to municipal cleanliness, there appears to be an entire absence of regulation and police. It is not uncommon in the dog killing season to see mounds of the carcases of these animals in the suburbs, left to the care of vultures, the only legal scavengers.

The streets run at right angles, and are of good breadth, and well paved. The houses are generally of one story with flat roofs, and enclose a small court.

They are built of sun dried brick, the better to resist the effect of earthquakes; the floors are rarely wood, but paved or earthen; in damp weather they are not comfortable, as fire is seldom used, except in small copper dishes termed braseros.

In their mode of living, the higher classes are luxurious and dissipated, and the lower, idle and intemperate. The abundance of fruit and vegetables, and the facility of obtaining subsistence, dispose the lower classes to all the various pleasures of sensual indulgence. They are fond of gaming, drinking, and the excitable amusements of the Theatre, and Plaza de Toro.

Vegetables and fruits enter largely into the fare of all orders; they are generally cooked with oil or fat meat, so as to become gross and stimulating.

Breakfast is usually composed of chocolate, fried fruits, and vegetables. At dinner a variety of compound meat dishes according to their means, and supper is a mixture of every thing procurable. Appetites are scarcely ever restrained when excess is practicable.

The appearance of the Limaneans indicates an inferior grade of health, and the constancy of its depressing causes. They are thin, sallow, and of feeble structure. They are not as excitable as the inhabitants of the torrid zone usually, but languid and fond of repose.

Maturity is quickly reached, and the advances of age are soon perceived. The happy and active period of boyhood, which is so interesting in our community, is hardly known at Lima. The

children partake of the manners, amusements, and too often the dissipations of riper years.

The city is supposed to contain between 60 and 70,000 inhabitants, consisting of Europeans, Indians, Negroes, and their descendants, mingled in various proportions. The pure white population is inferior in numbers to the other classes, and is more sensible to the ill effects of the climate. They are delicate in form, yellowish complexion, and of a bilious temperament. In their mental disposition, they do not differ from the parent stock. Their diseases are acute fevers, affections of the liver, and rheumatism.

The Indian race is rather under the ordinary stature, disposed to corpulency, and of a soft and relaxed tissue. They have the copper color, common to all the American tribes, coarse black hair coming low over a small forehead, black eyes, and an oval face. In their moral features, they are grave and taciturn, affectionate and docile, very sensible to kindness, but passive under oppression.

Their countenances wear an expression of sadness, that is seldom banished by a smile. Their gentle spirits manifest no great strength of intellect or firmness of purpose. In constitution, they have the lymphatic temperament, and feebly resist disease and hardships; they support fatigue under high temperature, but are not capable of bearing cold or sudden changes. Their diseases are those of a congested character, such as low fevers, apoplexy, and glandular obstruction. Catarrhs readily degenerate into consumptions in their debilitated systems.

Those that inhabit the mountains are more robust, and of fuller habit; when they come down on the coast, they are very subject to apoplectic seizures, followed by paralysis. They are great sufferers in the epidemics, which have at intervals visited Peru. Such as the small pox, measles, and influenza; their timidity and superstition add force to disease, and occasion greater mortality among them than in any other class.

The Mestizia, or the descendants of the European and Indian, are the most important and numerous part of the population. They are thin, but actively formed, with agreeable and expressive countenances. In moral qualities they are above the Indian, possessing greater capacity for learning, and more lively minds. They are fond of music, poetry, and eloquence, and exercise considerable ingenuity in the arts, wherever there are opportunities of cultivating them. Their principal diseases are consumption, tertian fevers, and convulsive affections; to the latter, they are particularly obnoxious from their excitable and nervous temperament.

The Negro race is physically superior to the others. It is better adapted to a warm country, and is less affected by its prevailing disease. The Negroes here are a healthy, vigorous

people, capable of supporting labour under tropical suns, with impunity. Their color and skin protect them from the deleterious causes that affect the white population. They are, however, subject to dysentery and scurvy.

The mulatto or descendants of European and Negro, are rapidly increasing in number. They have physically and morally the worst qualities of their parents. The mingling of the two races debases both—it lowers the white, without essentially raising the black. They are quick in apprehension, unsteady in purpose, fond of dissipation, amorous and revengeful. In their diseases, they partake of the infirmities of both races. They are subject to consumption, nervous disorders, and cutaneous diseases.

It has been justly remarked by a native writer, and should be borne in mind by all strangers who visit the country, that although heat and moisture are the predominant qualities of the climate, cold is the general cause of its diseases.

Natives of temperate regions may not be sensibly incommoded by the heat at Lima; it nevertheless, by its constancy stimulates their system, and predisposes them to many disorders which the inhabitants escape. Although the atmosphere is filled with moisture, evaporation is active, and the skin of ardent and sanguine temperaments, being strongly impressed, soon becomes enfeebled by over action. Exposure while in a perspiration to the south wind blowing freshly, although it may not reduce the thermometer a degree, is attended with danger. Most of the diseases of the variable weather of September and November, such as bilious pleurisies, colds and bowel complaints, are thus produced.

The abundance and deliciousness of the fruits, are great temptation to strangers to commit excess, which lays the foundation of the fevers and dysenteries of autumn. A moderate use of fruit is beneficial, particularly if it takes the place of animal food; but indulgence at all hours, and under the excitement of stimulating diet, brings on debility and disorder of the digestive organs.

The absence of those severe epidemics, which are so fatal to strangers in the northern tropic, induce many to believe that there is no necessity for precaution in Peru, and that their usual mode of living may be persisted in with impunity. This is a mistake fatal to a number of our countrymen, and it may not be inappropriate to conclude these observations by a few remarks on the prevailing diseases. Fevers that are characterized by hot skin, fierce delirium, and of supposed marshy origin, are common in the hot months. They are bilious remittents, of a high grade, but do not reach the form of yellow fever. Robust strangers are very liable to attacks from them, and often fall victims. Intermittent fevers are of daily oc-

currence, and exceedingly protracted. They frequently compel the patient to resort to a change of climate. Their consequences are often met with in the appearance of the natives, bloated, pallid countenance, enlarged abdomen, and feeble gait.

Exposure to the chilling nights of autumn, is almost certain to occasion an attack, if the system has been disordered by abuses of diet or intemperance.

Dysentery is rarely absent, and at the conclusion of hot summers, it prevails epidemically. It is usually brought on by errors of diet, and immoderate use of spirituous drinks. There are none of the diseases of the country more pernicious, as it is seldom so completely cured, as not to return upon the slightest recurrence of its causes. It is usually accompanied by a smart fever, and violent pain; and in young and full habits, will often terminate in mortification, unless actively treated.

Inflammation and abscess of the liver are frequently met with. This disease is very insidious in its approach. A person may apparently be enjoying good health, while irreparable injury is taking place in this organ. There are few escape an attack who remain two or three years in the country; the danger is much enhanced by free living, and exposure to the heat of the sun. Let no one who has a chronic disease of the liver, visit Peru with a hope that its moderate temperature will allow him to enjoy his usual health; he will find himself fatally mistaken, when too late to profit by experience. In the damp and cloudy months, pulmonary complaints are very common. Pleurisy, with bilious symptoms is an ordinary affection. The mixed breeds suffer very much from these diseases of the chest; they are often the victims of consumption.

Among foreign seamen cases of hemorrhage from the lungs, are of frequent occurrence; we were informed of several instances of hale, strong young men being cut off in 1828, by a sudden effusion of blood on the chest. There is no doubt that a disposition to hemorrhagic termination is found in certain diseases of warm climates: it is manifested particularly in those of the head, lungs and bowels. It is very common among the inhabitants of the mountainous part of Peru. In the wars of the revolution, it is said that great numbers of the troops would be carried off by sudden discharges of blood from the nose and mouth, while on a march.

Spasmodic diseases are much dreaded by all classes. They frequently supervene on indigestion, wounds, and exposure to the direct rays of the sun. One of the most usual exciting causes is a sudden check of perspiration by the cool sea

breeze; a partial loss of motion, spasms of the muscles, and severe pain, are therefore the frequent complaints of the imprudent labourers.

The stranger is frequently warned by the natives against the Empachado, a term that includes the whole range of evils, depending on constipation of the bowels; but usually applied to a violent pain, obstinate obstruction, and sudden enlargement of the abdomen. It is very common in the summer, and generally arises from error of diet, and sleeping exposed to the night air. An attack is considered dangerous, if not actively treated.

It is very remarkable that there is no proof of the yellow fever's existence in any part of this coast south of the equator. At Guayaquil, where the climate does not differ from that of the West Indies and Vera Cruz, they are subject to severe bilious fevers; but there is no form so intense, so well marked in its symptoms, or so fatal to strangers as to claim the character of the Vomito Prieto. The medical authorities of Lima do not mention its occurrence at any former period; it has occupied too remarkable a portion of the history of the early settlement of other parts of the Spanish discoveries to be omitted, had it ever appeared epidemically.

A few degrees north, at Panama, it is seldom absent when there are victims. If the disease arose from marshy grounds, alluvial soil, and high temperature, we should expect to find it at Guayaquil, Payta, and the northern provinces of Peru. The materials are abundant, and the habits and circumstances of the people are favourable to its reception. The conclusion of the rainy season at Guayaquil is unhealthy, fevers and dysentery are very fatal; but strangers who are prudent, suffer less than the natives, and although they may have a fever with a yellow skin, it is very different from the yellow fever of the West Indies.

It may be observed that a facility of undergoing putrefaction, and a quantity of animal matter, are indispensable for the production of the cause of this fever; and its virulence often bears greater relation to the former requisite, than to the latter. For some of the most fatal spots are apparently the freest from the usually assigned materials—viz: marshy, woody, or jungle grounds; and others in the midst of swamps, are, comparatively, exempt from its visits. Both Peru and Chili, are remarkably free from the lower orders of animal life, which so abundantly fill earth, air, and water in the northern tropic. There are no poisonous reptiles, and the water courses descend so rapidly, that they do not allow of the generation of those tribes of insects which infest the stagnant waters, on the alluvial soil of Mexico and Colombia. Here is the absence of

ces its influence on those who, in their progress to maturity, become liable to enrolment at a period of life when parental authority begins to lose its control. It regulates the eccentricities of youth, inculcates subordination to authority, teaches obedience to the laws, and respect for those who are entrusted with their administration. Its associations promote civility, good manners, and friendly intercourse in society. Its exhibitions are public, encouraging cleanliness of person, and eliciting that pride of character which leads to the fear of reproach, and enlivens the desire of distinction. Its employments are active, requiring judgement and decision. Its exercises are manly, giving grace to the person, vigor to the muscle, and energy to the mind. Its duties are scientific, inciting to study, and inducing inquiry. Its objects are patriotic, animating the best feelings of the heart. Its offices, open to all, are the incentives of honorable ambition, affording to those in humble stations, whose merits might otherwise remain unnoticed, opportunities for disclosing those virtues and talents which recommend them for civil preferment, as well as military promotion; and thus it is, this truly republican institution, in connexion with our systems of public education and establishments of religious instruction, contributes to produce that just subordination in society which influences all its conduct, and constitutes an orderly community.

Let not, then, this valuable institution fall into disrepute, for the want of the patronage of those who know its merits. In the militia all have an interest, those who have property to defend, homes to protect, and liberty to secure, as well as those whose lives are risked. It is composed and officered by men drawn from the various classes of society. No means should, therefore, be omitted for its improvement and instruction, and for lightening and equalizing its burdens. Militia laws should be made for the government of practical men, and the provisions of them should be as permanent and certain as the nature of the institution admits. The system of discipline should also be plain and fixed, so that the practice under it should be uniform. It should prescribe the discipline of the soldiers, and the duty of the officers; contain simple rules for the formation of companies and battalions, and instruction for a few of the most important manœuvres, such as all may comprehend and execute without much study or labor. These they must be taught to perform before they are brought into the field for actual service. It is not the intent of the Constitution that the militia should be converted into regulars in time of war, and be kept in service till they have learnt their duty. This would be the most expensive system of defence that could be devised. Our forts are to be garrisoned by the army. The militia are intended as a reserve, to be called out on sudden emergencies,

Not only so, but he is subject to pecuniary penalties for a non-compliance with the exactions of legal provisions, which, by accident or occupation, he may be obliged to forfeit. He must also, support himself while attending the company and battalion trainings, and defray the incidental and necessary expenses of travel and attendance at the public reviews. The distance to the place of parade is often so great that two or more days is taken up in the duty, making this item an addition of no very inconsiderable amount to the unequal exactions of the laws before noticed. The inequality thus produced is one of the greatest obstacles to the improvement of the militia. It is believed to be so great in those States where the laws are executed in the spirit of the institution, as to deter others from the attempt to accomplish its design. It should hence be inferred, that much success in the establishment of an uniform national militia cannot be expected until this obstacle is removed.

There is only one class of persons whose condition furnishes any semblance of an argument in favor of the existing law requiring every soldier to arm himself at his own expense.—This consists of those, who, by reason of age or service, are now exempted, but who, when they were enrolled, were subject to that obligation. They claim that, as they have performed their tour of duty unassisted, their successors should do the same, or at least, that, having provided their own arms, when they were the subject of enrolment, they should not now be called on to contribute to their purchase for others.

This argument had some weight in it in 1792, when the Militia Law was passed. The country but a few years before that time had gained its independence, principally by the personal exertions and contributions of those in whose favor the distinction is made, and surely it was not without reason, when other resources were wanting, that those who came into the full enjoyment of liberty without the labor of its acquisition, should be required to arm and equip themselves for its preservation, as their fathers had done for its attainment. But since that period the condition of the country has changed. Its population has increased threefold, and its resources an hundred.—Penury and suffering have been succeeded by affluence and independence, the public means are equal to its wants, and no good reason can now be perceived, why the consequent amelioration which has taken place in the condition of all other classes of society, should not also be extended to that which is subject to militia duty.

It will be observed that, in the remarks upon the inequality of militia burdens, no allusion is made to the national law which purports by the title of the act, "to make provision for arming and equipping the whole body of the militia of the United States." This was purposely omitted, because the amount

appropriated is so inconsiderable for the object, it would have no weight in the argument. The title of the act is deceptive, as, at the present rate of supply, it will take seventy-five years to furnish the existing militia, making no allowance for the increase of population within that period. Until Congress shall provide for carrying into effect the design of that statute, so as to make its provisions a substitute for the law of 1792, which requires the militia to arm themselves, our admiration of the principles of the act will only increase our regret at the want of means for its due execution. This we have no good reason to hope is its immediate design. The law of Congress at the last session, extending the provisions of the Act for arming the whole body of the militia, to the District of Columbia, according to its title, and for loaning arms from the national armory according to its provisions, is either an act of partial legislation, or contains a pledge to this effect. There is a manifest propriety in according to the militia of that District, the benefit of an appropriation which the original act confined to the several States and Territories. But if this were the sole object of the act, we should naturally have expected some provision in it for an annual return of the militia, as the arms are to be distributed in proportion to the numbers enrolled. But the after provision which authorizes *a loan* of arms to the militia of that District, makes annual returns for the purpose of future supply unnecessary. No reason is perceived why the militia of that District should obtain exclusive exemption from the requisition of the Act of Congress of 1792, which requires the soldiers to provide their own arms, and yet, there is no uneasiness discovered, at what, undoubtedly, would have been considered as an act of unequal favor, unless its provisions had been of so decisive a character as to justify the opinion that it was intended as a precedent upon which an entire system of relief to the whole militia should be founded. A commencement of this just, and I might say, charitable work, may then be considered as made; and the rapid improvement which it has wrought in the militia of the District, it is believed, will tend to confirm the utility of extending the privilege to the whole body.

Another source of inequality, arising from the numerous and unnecessary exemptions from militia duty, of those who otherwise would be liable to enrolment, which the laws recognize, will be the subject of just complaint so long as it continues.—These are oppressive and discouraging to those who remain subject to duty not only, but, under the unlimited authority given to the Legislature to grant exemptions at discretion, the power is exercised to an extent not contemplated when it was given, and principles are established, and practices admitted, in the different States, which make the law unequal in the operation of its own provisions. This is a growing evil, not

more destructive of the militia numbers, however, than it is of the pride of those who are thus made to feel the inequality of their own condition and influence.

The service required of citizens towards the support of Government is of two kinds, pecuniary and personal. All contribute to the former, according to their ability; certain classes, only, render the latter. These are composed of such as hold offices in the civil departments of Government, instructers of morality and religion, teachers of youth, jurymen, and others, who cannot perform their duties by substitutes. Although some ardent friends of the militia are opposed to the exemption of any person whatever, who by age is liable to enrolment, without the payment of an equivalent, the propriety of exempting from training such classes, is not herein disputed. And if it were, and constitutional restrictions against exercising or granting such a power were made in all, as was lately done in one of the States, still the Legislature could do the same in all, that it did in the one alluded to, put the fines of non-attendance so low as to do more injury than would have resulted from a grant of proper exemption. These abuses are easily corrected. The exempting is incident to the enrolling power which is vested in Congress. Let Congress exercise it, then, and exempt such officers of the Federal and State Governments, and other persons, whose personal duties are equally important, but incompatible with militia service. The obligation and exemption will then be the same in all the States, and a great advance made in restoring that equality which the various exercise of this power, by the several States, under the authority delegated to them by Congress, has destroyed.—Viewed in some lights, indeed certain exemptions seem to be necessary for the harmonious administration of our system of civil Government. The executive, legislative, and judiciary functions, must be performed, public education upheld, religion maintained, and the trial by jury preserved. Upon these and the militia, the purity and security of our Government, in a great degree, depends. They are all essential to the order of its practical operation. There would, therefore, seem to be manifest injustice in requiring those to pay an equivalent for not rendering that personal service, in one branch, which their duty required of them at the same time in another. This reason, however, should not release them from the obligation of providing themselves with arms, as is required of those who have less ability to procure them. For until suitable measures are adopted for a more liberal distribution of arms, at the general expense, consideration for the public safety will enforce the argument for equalizing the militia burdens, in favor of this requisition.

country, where compulsory processes are not available, of quickly filling up the ranks of the Army, when a sudden increase of it becomes necessary, the conviction is irresistibly forced on the mind, that one of its most important resulting advantages would be, that the country would be furnished with a large class of intelligent and practical officers, from which judicious selections for appointments to Army commissions might be made, of such as, from their known attainments and popularity in their several districts of command, would soon be able to recruit its ranks.

The improvement of the militia will not only increase the national strength, and facilitate its means, but the measure will be one of national economy, considered both with regard to its effect on the public coffers, and the resulting advantages of productive labor: for, if the officers are uninformed, and the soldiers imperfectly armed and untrained, when invasion impends, a larger number of troops than otherwise would be necessary, must not only be assembled, but they must be called out in anticipation of the period of service, to be drilled and receive those common elements of instruction which, if previously attained, would have made it unnecessary to have taken them from the profitable employments of domestic industry, until the danger was immediate. If it would not be considered invidious, strong illustrations of the importance, in point of expenditure, of this truth, might be drawn from the amount of the disbursements for the militia employed during the late war, in different parts of the Union. But facts cannot now be necessary, to show the economy of substituting discipline for numbers, in every light in which the proposition can be viewed; nor arguments adduced, to prove how much more zealous and valuable his services are, who is employed for the defence of his own neighborhood, where all his early associations, domestic attachments, and local knowledge, are brought in aid of his patriotic ardor, than when marched away, for the protection of strangers, to distant places. It may almost be laid down as an axiom, that, in proportion to the length of time the militia continues in service, and the distance of its employment from home, will its moral force be diminished, though its military attainments might be increased. The militia should always be employed where its moral power is greatest; and as this is advanced, the expenses of defence, by this arm, will be proportionably diminished. National economy, a most powerful operator in political concerns, is thus brought in aid of other considerations, making it desirable that such improvements should be made in the instruction of the officers of the militia, and in its organization, arms, and discipline, as to give it that confidence in itself, which will prevent its taking needless alarm, make its employment for long periods less frequent, and

its march to distant places unnecessary. The militia trainings are sufficient for this. The dignity and order of military exercises, under the direction of the experienced officers of the Revolution, made them public favorites; and so they continue to this day, in some of the States. The militia trainings are the People's holidays, and, in the country, form their chief amusements. Relieve the militia from the expenses incident to duty, and make the appearance and conduct of the troops such as to gratify their pride, and they will ask no pay for their time and services. This will naturally result from a due public estimate of the value of the institution. The effect of it will shew itself in the wise exercise of the constitutional powers of Congress; in restoring the equality of military obligation which all citizens owe to their country, by exempting none from militia duty, but those who have personal service to render in other conflicting capacities; by establishing an uniformity of militia organization, and affording instruction to the officers, and arms and relief from burdensome exactions, to the soldiers.—This must be done to bring back the militia to the object of its establishment, and some measures of fostering care, at least, soon adopted, to prevent the laws from being treated with contempt by those who are subject to their authority. The respectable yeomanry and patriotic citizens of this happy country will do any thing for the preservation of their institutions, which is equal and honorable. But to be mulcted for not appearing at the public trainings under ignorant officers, a laughing stock to the exempts, is what wise councils will not long expect submission to, from a free and high-minded people.

Judging from present effects, there are some who, doubting whether the trainings, even under favorable circumstances, would render the militia good soldiers, prefer that it should be classed and a portion of it called out every year, for a definite period, for camp duty and military exercise. Their views are solely military, and, as such, are entirely accorded with, and the principle fully admitted, that a few days continued instruction in camp, will do more towards turning citizens into soldiers, than many separate days of instruction. When this conversion shall become necessary, these means will undoubtedly be adopted, as the readiest to effect the object. But if a proper organization is maintained, and the leading features of the institution are preserved, the citizens may uninterruptedly continue their vocations, until the immediate presence of danger calls them into actual service. Those who aim at making the militia equal to the regular corps, look for more than it was designed to accomplish. To effect this, they must alter the character of the force; for so opposite are the pursuits of military and civil occupation, that, when the former becomes the chief object, every step the soldier gains the citizen loses. Such is

the effect of incorporating the militia of Europe with the regular forces. But it is not our wish to turn citizens into soldiers in time of peace. The object of our military establishments, on the contrary, is to preserve to us the enjoyment of our civil blessings. We should, therefore, exceedingly fear the effect of such a change on our moral habits and domestic enjoyment; and those republican statesmen who think that its effect would be alike injurious to the stability of our free constitutions, will avoid every measure which shall cause the business of the soldier to become the sole object of the citizen. The term citizen soldier accurately conveys the character of an American militia man: and the constitutional object and design of his enrolment and instruction cannot be better expressed, or defined, than by the use of those words as convertible terms. The citizen soldier of peace is to become the soldier citizen of war; but, neither in peace nor war, is the character of either the citizen or soldier to be merged in the other. Thus will the principles of military subordination contribute to the good order of civil society, and the pride of honorable distinction furnish new incentives to virtuous efforts. But this cannot be the effect where militia exercises have become so inferior, as to make a compliance with legal acquirements appear to be useless and derogatory. So far as this is to be attributed to the want of the parental care of the Government, injury must be anticipated to the whole of its institutions. It is however hoped, that the decision of the country upon the utility of the continuance of the militia establishment, which its present condition in the United States evinces will ere long be required, will not be delayed till this effect is produced. The importance of that decision, whenever it shall be made, to our free constitutions, is left to be discussed by those who will indulge me with the remark, that, if the militia deserves no better encouragement than it receives, its abolition by a public act would be a measure of wisdom, before an institution, calculated to produce the best moral and political impressions, shall have so far deteriorated, as to give it a demoralizing influence. There is nothing to be apprehended from the public decision upon this question; the difficulty is to get the subject taken into consideration. The result of this will be, none will doubt but those who would turn the militia into regular soldiers, that the militia shall be upheld, as indispensable to the preservation of civil and political liberty; and this very decision will contain such a pledge of patronage as will check the progress of dilapidation, and give time for a careful survey of its condition and wants to be made, preparatory to such amendments to the laws as the useful continuance of its establishment makes imperious.

Without again recurring to those many other considerations and advantages which have before been submitted to the pub-

lic eye, and which will naturally present themselves to every considerate inquirer as resulting from the operation of a plan for improving that arm of defence, which, after its adoption, it is hoped may with truth be called "the cheap defence of nations," I cannot omit to remark upon its general accordance with those improved practices in the administration of national affairs which have lately been introduced for establishing a perfect degree of responsibility in all its organs; thus, by increasing official accountability, diminishing the public jealousy, and adding greatly to the general confidence.

The object proposed is great, the expense of the experiment trifling. Even if it were considerable, we should not fear that Congress would furnish the means, when it discovers the utility of their application. So long as no account is rendered of the arms which have been distributed at the public cost, no system of returns or accountability is provided, and no information given of the advantage which has resulted from former grants, it cannot be wondered at, that an enlargement of militia appropriations is not made. But when a plan shall be devised for the suitable instruction of the officers, and for teaching the privates, so far as they are instructed at all, upon the same uniform plan; when a perfect degree of accountability of all public property shall be established; when the files of the returns have only to be examined, and the leaves of a record book turned over by the Members of Congress, to enable them to ascertain all needed information respecting the condition of the militia in every State and Territory in the Union; when the public shall be informed that a system is proposed for the effectual preservation of their individual and political liberty at all times, and by which, when the invader approaches, a million of bayonets will be presented at a single word; he must indeed be a sceptic, who would doubt that sufficient appropriations would not freely be made to carry it into effect, and give to the militia that stability, dignity, and efficiency, which the theory of the system intends.

In truth, omitting further illustration to avoid prolixity, it seems to me, that an intelligent officer, whose duty was confined to the object, by corresponding with the officers of the militia in all parts of the Union, conversing with the Members of Congress, and other well informed individuals from the several States and Territories, and adopting those facilities for obtaining such a knowledge of local habits and necessities as his situation at the seat of Government afforded, would, in a reasonable time, be able to propose, with general concurrence, some simple provisions, by the introduction of which the militia system would soon be established on the lasting basis of utility and honor.

ORDER, No. 1.

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, January 3d, 1833.

The General has received from the War Department the subjoined Regulation, which is published for general information:

DEPARTMENT OF WAR,
December 29th, 1832.

For the information of the Army it is hereby announced, that in any future selections from the line for appointments in the Staff which confer rank, length of service upon extra duty on the Staff will not be considered as entitling an officer to any preference in the selection. There is no just reason why it should do so. In those Corps where a system of rotation is established and maintained for details for extra service, a principle of selection, confined to the officers upon such extra duty, and depending upon the time they have been so detached, would be obviously unequal and unjust. For the promotion of such officers would be made to depend, not upon their qualifications nor upon that experience, which is presumed to ensure it, but upon the accidental occurrence of a vacancy during the period in which such officer is serving upon extra duty.

The officers of the Army receive the same education at the same common institution. Circumstances send some to the frontier and other posts in the discharge of the ordinary duties of their profession, and place others in agreeable situations upon extra duty. To the certain advantages, which accrue from being so detached, ought not to be added an exclusive and perpetual claim to those military vacancies, which should be the reward of the meritorious and qualified officer, in whatever branch of the service he may be temporarily placed. Experience is no doubt important, and it would always form one of the objects of inquiry in the investigation of the claims of the various applicants; but it is not the only one, though it is the only certain one, which results from service upon extra duty. As a mere question of military right, the longer an officer is continued upon such duty, the greater is the injury to all his brother officers, whose duties are thereby increased, and whose expectations of similar advantages are thereby disappointed. Superadded to this, a priority of claim to all the vacancies which occur in the Staff, and the inequality becomes injustice.

A double chance of promotion is given to all officers upon extra duty, one in the line of the Army, and one in the branch of service in which they are doing duty. If they have the latter, they ought not to have the former, for the only reason that gives the appearance of justice to the claim is founded upon the experience acquired in the performance of a particular class of duties, and in proportion as this experience is attained, their appropriate professional duties are neglected, and they are less qualified to serve in the line. If they have both, all the other officers should have both.

Besides, if length of service in a particular corps is to be the only criterion of selection for promotion, an officer should not be cut off from his chance, because he is ordered back to his command in the line.

The claim would be a personal one and would continue with him wherever he might serve. The obvious impracticability of measuring a length of service which might be made up of detached periods of days, weeks, months and years, must be apparent.

Hereafter no Staff appointment conferring rank will be given to any officer, until he relinquish his commission in the line of the Army.

LEW: CASS.

BY ORDER OF MAJOR GENERAL ALEXANDER MACOMB:
R. JONES,
Adjutant General.

ORDER, No. 40.

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, May 4th, 1833.

1.—The following list of Promotions and Appointments in the Army of the United States, made by the President, since the publication of the Army Register, in January, is published for general information:

1.——*Promotions, First Regiment of Artillery.*

1st Lieut. M. A. Patrick, to be Captain, 4th February, 1833, vice Dana, deceased. [Company B.]

2d Lieut. F. Taylor, to be 1st Lieut. 31 Jan. 1833, vice Cooke, resigned.

2d Lieut. A. D. Mackay, to be 1st Lieut. 4th February, 1833, vice Patrick, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. J. Ammen, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1831, vice Taylor, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. J. W. Bailey, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1832, vice Mackay, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. H. G. Sill, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1832, vice Ryan, resigned.

Fourth Regiment of Artillery.

1st Lieut. J. M. Washington, to be Captain, 30 May, 1832, vice Ripley appointed Captain in the Ordnance Department, [Company B.]

2d Lieut. R. C. Smead, to be 1st Lieut. 30 September, 1832, vice Monroe, resigned.

Brev. 2d Lieut. B. S. Ewell, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1832, vice Smead, promoted.

First Regiment of Infantry.

1st Lieut. T. P. Gwynne, to be Captain, 4th March, 1833, vice Mason appointed Major of Dragoons.

2d Lieut. T. B. W. Stockton, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833, vice Gwynne, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. G. Wilson, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Stockton, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. E. A. Ogden, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1831, vice Davis, appointed 2d Lieut. of Dragoons.

Second Regiment of Infantry.

1st Lieut. J. Clitz, to be Captain 4th April, 1832, vice Thompson, promoted, [Company A.]

1st Lieut. E. K. Barnum, to be Captain, 28th December, 1832, vice Brant, resigned, [G.]

2d Lieut. H. Day, to be 1st Lieut. 4th April, 1832, vice Clitz, promoted.

2d Lieut. W. Bloodgood, to be 1st Lieut. 28th December, 1832, vice Barnum, promoted.

2d Lieut. S. P. Heintzelman, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833, vice Sumner, appointed Captain of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. E. R. Long, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1829, vice Day, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. James M. Hill, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Bloodgood, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. J. H. Leavenworth, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Heintzelman, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. G. W. Patten, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Van Buren, appointed 1st Lieut. of Dragoons.

Third Regiment of Infantry.

Brev. Major J. Fowle, Captain of the 5th Infantry, to be Major, 4th of March, 1833, vice Kearney, appointed Lieut. Colonel of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. S. K. Cobb, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1828, vice Stillwell, resigned.

Fourth Regiment of Infantry.

Brev. 2d Lieut. D. A. Manning, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Swords, appointed 2d Lieut. of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. C. H. Larned, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July 1831, vice Burnet, resigned.

Fifth Regiment of Infantry.

1st Lieut. J. M. Baxley, to be Captain 4th March; 1833, vice Fowle, promoted.

2d Lieut. M. C. Merrill, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833, vice Baxley, promoted.

2d Lieut. E. K. Smith, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833, vice Hunter, appointed Captain of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. James Allen, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1829, vice Merrill, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. J. T. Collingsworth, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Perkins, appointed 1st Lieut. of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. C. C. Daveiss, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Smith, promoted.

Sixth Regiment of Infantry.

Brev. Major A. R. Thompson, Captain of the 2d Infantry, to be Major, 4th April, 1832, vice Davenport, promoted.

1st Lieut. G. W. Waters, to be Captain, 4th March, 1833, vice Wharton, appointed Captain of Dragoons.

2d Lieut. H. St. James Linden, to be 1st Lieut, 4th March, 1833, vice Waters, promoted.

2d Lieut. G. Dorr, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833, vice Holmes, appointed Captain of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. W. Hoffman, to be 2d Lieut. I July, 1829, vice Linden, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. A. Cady, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1829, vice Dorr, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. J. Freeman, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1829, vice Cooke, appointed 1st Lieut. of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. T. L. Alexander, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Rousseau, resigned.

Seventh Regiment of Infantry.

1st Lieut. C. Thomas, to be Captain, 30 April, 1833, vice Burch, resigned.

1st Lieut. J. L. Dawson, to be Captain, 30 April, 1833, vice Berryman, resigned.

2d Lieut. W. G. Williams, to be 1st Lieut. 30 April, 1833, vice Thomas, promoted.

2d Lieut. D. S. Miles, to be 1st Lieut. 30 April, 1833, vice Dawson, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. S. Kinney, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Seawell, appointed 1st Lieut. of Dragoons.

Brev. 2d Lieut. R. H. Ross, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1830, vice Williams, promoted.

Brev. 2d Lieut. A. M. Lea, to be 2d Lieut. 1 July, 1831, vice Miles, promoted.

II.——*Appointments, Staff.*

Adam D. Steuart, Va. to be Paymaster, 14th January, 1833.

Joseph D. Harris, N. Y. to be Assistant Surgeon, 2d March, 1833.

Nathan S. Jarvis, N. Y. to be Assistant Surgeon, 2d March, 1833.

Richard Clark, N. Y. to be Assistant Surgeon, 2d March, 1833.

Adam N. McLaren, S. C. to be Assistant Surgeon, 2d March, 1833.

Benjamin F. Fellowes, N. H. to be Assistant Surgeon, 2d March, 1833.

Ordnance Department.

J. W. Ripley, late Captain of the 4th Regiment of Artillery, to be Captain, to take rank from the 30th May, 1832.

Regiment of Dragoons.

Major H. Dodge, of the Battalion of Mounted Rangers, to be Colonel, 4th March, 1833.

Major S. W. Kearny, of the 3d Regiment of Infantry, to be Lieut. Colonel, 4th March, 1833.

Captain R. B. Mason, of the 1st Regiment of Infantry, to be Major, 4th March, 1833.

Captain C. Wharton, of the 6th Regiment of Infantry, to be Captain, 4th March, 1833.

1st Lieut. E. V. Sumner, of the 2d Regiment of Infantry, to be Captain, 4th March, 1833.

1st Lieut. R. Holmes, of the 6th Regiment of Infantry, to be Captain, 4th March, 1833.

1st Lieut. D. Hunter, of the 5th Regiment of Infantry, to be Captain, 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. W. Seawell, of the 7th Regiment of Infantry, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. D. Perkins, of the 5th Regiment of Infantry, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. P. St. George Cooke, of the 6th Regiment of Infantry, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. A. Van Buren, of the 2d Regiment of Infantry, to be 1st Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. J. Davis, of the 1st Regiment of Infantry, to be 2d Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. L. P. Lupton, of the 3d Regiment of Infantry, to be 2d Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. T. Swords, of the 4th Regiment of Infantry, to be 2d Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

2d Lieut. J. H. K. Burgwin, of the 2d Regiment of Infantry, to be 2d Lieut. 4th March, 1833.

III.——CASUALTIES.—RESIGNATIONS.

Captains.

Joshua B. Brant, 2d Infantry, 28th December, 1832.
Daniel E. Burch, 7th Infantry, 30th April, 1833.
Henry Berryman, 7th Infantry, 30th April, 1833

1st Lieutenant.

James H. Cooke, 1st Artillery, 31st January, 1833.

2d Lieutenants.

Stephen V. R. Ryan, 1st Artillery, 31st March, 1833.
W. S. Stillwell, 3d Infantry, 31st March, 1833.
Robert W. Burnet, 4th Infantry, 31st March, 1833.
Gustavus S. Rousseau, 6th Infantry, 30th April, 1833.

Brevet 2d Lieutenants.

Henderson K. Yoakum, 3d Artillery, 31st March, 1833.
John G. Harvey, 2d Infantry, 15th February, 1833.
George B. Crittenden, 4th Infantry, 30th April, 1833.
Humphrey Marshall, Mounted Rangers, 30th April, 1833.

Assistant Surgeon.

John Thruston, - - - - - - - 1st May, 1833.

Paymaster.

Alphonso Wetmore, - - - - - - 1st May, 1833.

Declined.

2d Lieutenant James F. Izard, Regiment of Dragoons.
2d Lieutenant Joseph Ritner, Regiment of Dragoons.

Deaths.— Captain.

Nathaniel G. Dana, 1st Artillery, 4th February, 1833.

2.—Major Thompson, of the 6th Regiment of Infantry, is assigned to the command of Fort Leavenworth, to which post he will repair without unnecessary delay. Major Fowle, of the 3d Infantry, will report in person for orders, at the Adjutant General's Office. All other officers promoted, will report, by letter, to their respective Colonels, and join their proper stations, unless otherwise instructed from this Office.

3.—The date of Lieutenant H. A. Wilson's promotion to 1st Lieutenant in the 4th Regiment of Artillery, is *May 30th*, 1832, instead of "September 30th, 1832." This change of date results from the recent promotion of 1st Lieutenant Washington, vice Captain Ripley, appointed Captain of Ordnance.

By order of Major General MACOMB:

R. JONES,
Adjutant General.

ORDER. *No. 60.*

HEAD QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, 6th July, 1833.

1.—The following list of Promotions and Appointments in the Army of the United States, made by the President, since the publication of the "Order" No. 40, of May 4, 1833, is published for general information:—

I——PROMOTIONS, *First Regiment of Artillery.*

2d Lieut. J. R. Irwin, to be 1st Lieut. 31 May, 1833, vice Wheelwright, resigned.

Brev. 2d Lieut. G. Watson, to be 2d Lieut. 31 May, 1833, vice Irwin, promoted—(*brevet*, July 1, 1832.)

Third Regiment of Artillery.

2d Lieut. J. W. Harris, to be 1st Lieut. 30 June, 1833, vice Corprew, resigned.

2d Lieut. R. Anderson, to be 1st Lieut. 30 June, 1833, vice Brockenbrough, resigned.

Brev. 2d Lieut. S. H. Miller, to be 2d Lieut. 30 June, 1833, vice Harris, promoted—(*brevet*, July 1, 1831.)

Brev. 2d Lieut. G. H. Talcott, to be 2d Lieut. 30th June, 1833, vice Anderson promoted—(*brevet*, July 1, 1831.)

II——APPOINTMENTS, *Staff.*

Charles W. Handy, Md. to be Assistant Surgeon, 11th May, 1833.

The following named Cadets, constituting the 1st class of 1833, at the last June examination, having been adjudged by the Academic Staff, competent to perform duty in the Army, the President has attached them as supernumerary 2d Lieutenants, by brevet, to Regiments and Corps respectively, as indicated in the following list—

Rank.

Corps of Engineers.

1 Cadet F. A. Smith, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
2 Cadet J. G. Barnard, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
3 Cadet G. W. Cullum, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
4 Cadet R. King, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

First Regiment of Artillery.

5 Cadet F. H. Smith, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
6 Cadet W. H. Sidell, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
7 Cadet D. B. Harris, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

10 Cadet E. A. Capron, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
13 Cadet D. E. Hale, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Second Regiment of Artillery.

11 Cadet I. Garrett, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
17 Cadet E. Schriver, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
18 Cadet H. Waller, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Third Regiment of Artillery.

8 Cadet R. W. Lee, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
14 Cadet R. R. Mudge, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
15 Cadet J. A. Thomas, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
19 Cadet J. H. Allen, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Fourth Regiment of Artillery.

12 Cadet J. H. Miller, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
16 Cadet J. L. Davis, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
20 Cadet A. E. Shiras, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
21 Cadet H. Dupont, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

First Regiment of Infantry.

23 Cadet G. D. Dimon, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
27 Cadet J. Riggs, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
31 Cadet G. H. Pegram, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
36 Cadet J. McClure, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Second Regiment of Infantry.

24 Cadet I. R. D. Burnett, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
29 Cadet H. W. Wessells, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
35 Cadet J. W. Anderson, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
38 Cadet T. Johns, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Third Regiment of Infantry.

39 Cadet B. E. Dubose, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Fourth Regiment of Infantry.

9 Cadet W. W. S. Bliss, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
22 Cadet B. Alvord, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
26 Cadet J. L. Hooper, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
28 Cadet J. W. McCrabb, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
32 Cadet A. C. Myers, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
41 Cadet H. L. Scott, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Fifth Regiment of Infantry.

34 Cadet D. Ruggles, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
37 Cadet J. C. Reid, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Sixth Regiment of Infantry.

25 Cadet J. E. Blake, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
30 Cadet J. P. Center, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
33 Cadet G. H. Ringgold, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
40 Cadet J. P. Harrison, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

Seventh Regiment of Infantry.

42 Cadet A. F. Seaton, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.
43 Cadet N. W. Hunter, to be Brevet 2d Lieutenant, 1st July, 1833.

III——CASUALTIES.—RESIGNATIONS.

1st Lieutenants.

Washington Wheelwright, 1st Artillery, 31st May, 1833.
George W. Corprew, 3d Artillery, 30th June, 1833.
Austin Brockenbrough, 3d Artillery, 30th June, 1833.

Brevet 2d Lieutenant.

Merewether L. Clarke, 6th Infantry, 31st May, 1833.

IV.—RULES TO BE OBSERVED IN ORDINARY CASES OF PROMOTION.

3. If a field officer, the officer *promoted* will join the Regiment and station of his predecessor; if a company officer, he will join the particular company where the vacancy to which he succeeds may have occurred.

4. The officers *promoted* will, accordingly, forthwith join their proper stations and companies, except those on detached service, or who may receive special instructions from this office: they will report, by letter, to their respective Colonels.

5. The Brevet 2d Lieutenants will *join* their respective regiments, and report in person for duty, agreeably to regulations, by the *30th day of September*, and by letter, to their respective Colonels, who will assign them to companies.

BY ORDER OF MAJOR GENERAL MACOMB:

R. JONES,
Adjutant General.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MR. EDITOR:—In the June number of your Magazine, is a communication signed "*a subscriber*," in the last paragraph of which is the following sentence:—"Why, let me ask, is it that officers of the Navy receive such high premiums for recruiting seamen, and officers of the Army are allowed nothing:—"A subscriber" is mistaken; the recruiting officer for the Navy receives no compensation beyond any other officer of his rank, *on duty*, and his compensation is the same, whether he recruits one man, or one thousand men in the year. The system of giving a premium to recruiting officers according to the number of men recruited, ceased in the Navy in 1828:—but suppose it was as "a subscriber" states, are not these comparisons between the two services, or rather the two branches of the same (the military) service, invidious? Neither branch is on the liberal footing which I think the good of the country requires, and the voice of the American people, I believe, would sanction; we all desire that they should be placed on such a footing, and this may be brought about by the officers of the Army and Navy bringing before Congress and the people, in a calm, dispassionate, and dignified manner, the claims of their respective services; but not by invidious comparisons, which only work evil to both parties.

I hope to see the attention of Congress turned seriously and in a liberal spirit to this subject. I say, with all my heart, to the officers of the Army who may strive to bring it about,—"God speed;" but they will not further their views by attacking us; on the contrary, to effect any thing for the good of the military establishments of the country, we must "pull together."

AN OFFICER OF THE NAVY, AND A SUBSCRIBER.

Baltimore, 27th June, 1833.

will forget the gallant Drum Major of the 8th or King's Regiment, in full costume, being brought down by the rifle of Lieutenant Riddle of the 15th, at the moment when, having returned to this dismantled battery, he was raising the linstock [to discharge] the remaining gun into the head of our column, then less than 200 yards from it. I am happy to say that this brave soldier was treated with marked attention in our hospital, and was ultimately cured of his wound.

At the time of the great explosion, our troops, formed in close column, with the Artillery in advance, were, by order of General Pike, halted, and seated under cover of a rising ground to avoid the enemy's shot, while our pieces were preparing for action. The distance from the head [of the] column of Infantry to the magazine, was a little less than 400 yards. Our column broke at the explosion, but in less than five minutes was re-formed under command of Col. Pearce, and on its forward march, leaving the dead and wounded on the ground where they fell.

The ship Pike was not launched or named, until after the death of the General. The Flag Ship at the first invasion of York, was the "Madison."

A YORKER.

FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL MAGAZINE.

The *Landsman* in your last number somewhat underrates the merits of the present *petty officers* in the Navy, and is in a great error as to the present want of *good seamen* in our service.

If he turns to the Annual Reports from the Navy Department the last two years, he will find the character and abundance of our seamen correctly stated—and he will further find, that the pay of the petty officers, as an act of justice to their worth, and as one means of improving permanently their qualifications, has again and again been earnestly recommended to be increased. Probably no service in the world has so good sailors; and the petty officers, though susceptible of improvement, are highly respectable.

The subject of apprentices in the Navy is not a new one; and after engaging the attention of the Department, and of Congress at former periods, has been judiciously left in its present condition.

Boys are now enlisted for three years—and at the expiration of that term, can again be enlisted by their parents and guar-

have succeeded quite as well the season past in keeping ardent spirits from the place, as could have been expected. But little has been sold here, and none carried into the Indian country except by Mr. ——, who obtained special permission from the governor, to carry some for three posts. Mr. D ———, had several barrels sent up, all of which he sent back, and the *sutler in Fort Brady, last spring, sent back 80 barrels of beer, and has kept none since.*" If the three posts of the American Fur Company, in the Fond Du Lac department should abandon the introduction of whiskey, there would remain no obstacle to the long wished for arrangement with the Hudson Bay Company, and the whole, or nearly the whole of the Indian country would be delivered from a scourge more fatal and desolating than the small pox.

At Fort Howard, Green Bay, the Head Quarters of the 5th Regiment United States Infantry, a temperance society has been lately formed on the principle of total abstinence from *all spirituous drinks.* "Eleven officers, and more than one hundred soldiers have become members; with the cheering prospect that all will join in this cause, which has done so much good to mankind." Accounts of a similar character, and most cheering, as they bespeak a radical and thorough reformation among the soldiers, have been received from Assistant Surgeon Lucius O'Brien, at Fort Pike, La. and from other frontier stations; so that we may now regard many of our military posts as schools of temperance.

A temperance society has been formed under encouraging auspices at Chicago, Ill. and one has for several years existed at Mackinac. May we not hope that exertions of all the frontier societies, will ere long effect what the friends of humanity throughout the world so much desire, namely, the utter exclusion of whiskey from the Indian country.

A.

From the Western Monthly Magazine.

EVENING MUSIC AT SEA.

BY A QUONDAM SAILOR.

If music be the food of love, play on,
Give me excess of it. * *
* * * *
That strain again: it had a dying fall.

Shakspeare.

On one of the delicious afternoons of February, peculiar to the West Indies, as the sun was declining below the western horizon, the beautiful Hornet lay in a calm near the Island of

Cuba. The sea was uncommonly smooth, imparting hardly sufficient motion to the buoyant ship, to disturb the sails as they hung listlessly against the masts. I had never, until then, fully realized the oft-repeated comparison of the bosom of the ocean to a mirror; but now, the truth of it came home to me, and I felt that there was sublimity, even in the calm of the 'vasty deep.' I could not gaze on it without being reminded, by contrast, of the tempests that at times sweep over it; and thus was its stillness associated with its commotion, its quiet with its power.

But though no breath raised a ripple on its surface, there was a ceaseless, but gentle swell, as if amid the coral beds beneath, some lonely water-spirit slumbered, while the waters above rose and fell with its steady breathing. Occasionally, a 'sorrowing sea-bird' would flit by unheeded, or descending, kiss the wave, and soar aloft again till lost in space. Then would a shining dolphin rush in pursuit of the terrified flying fish; and anon, glisten in the far depths, almost shedding light through the waters with the gloss of his silvery sides.

The sun was setting. How glowingly came upon me the force of those lines—

> 'Not, as in northern climes, obscurely bright,
> But one unclouded blaze of living light.'

The whole ocean seemed of liquid gold; and the sky far up, glowed as if some blazing spirit hovered in the void.

The rays of the sun penetrating the water horizontally, looked like gilded cords, so distinct and brilliant was the refraction. It was a scene to inspire emotions of a lofty character. Before us, was the glorious orb of light and life, sinking, as it were, to rest, in the wave-washed caverns of the deep; beneath, rolled the limitless ocean—fit emblem of the eternity over which we hovered; and above, spread the viewless ether, reflecting the deep blue of the wave beneath, unmarred by a single cloud.

At this hour, a few of the officers assembled on the forecastle to contemplate the scene; and recalling the joys of other days, to hold that converse, which, in a small degree, alleviates the privations of a seaman's life. With characteristic versatility, they passed from topic to topic, seldom dwelling long on one, till as the shades of twilight fell around, their feelings assumed a congenial hue, and graver themes were touched. The pall of night, thick set with stars, was thrown about the expiring day, and the moon shaking off her watery panoply, rose full and clear, shedding a broad stream of silver light as far as the eye could reach.

Then it was, the remembrances of the past crowded up like odors from a bed of flowers, lulling the feelings to that delicious calmness, which pleasant memories always inspire, and which none feel more sensibly than the tempest tost mariner. The father dwelt in tenderness on his distant family; the bro-

ther recalled the unbidden assiduities of a sister's love, and the son, as he leaned against the mast, his features set in the sedateness of sober reflection, felt his heart softened by the recollection of a mother's care. But few remarks were made. All felt that the silence which reigned above, beneath, and around, should not be disturbed. Each one had retired to the recesses of his own heart—a sanctuary too sacred to be violated.

Such was the state of feeling, when a clear melodious voice, slowly poured forth the first line of that exquisite song—'*Home, sweet home.*' As the words, 'Mid pleasures and palaces,' swelled upon the air, a single exclamation of pleasure escaped the hearers, and they again relapsed into silence. We had often heard the song, but never had it come so thrillingly as then. Had it been sung by even an ordinary performer, its effect would have been great; but breathed as it was with a fervor and feeling I have never known excelled; in a voice, full, manly, and touching, it could not but produce a powerful impression. As the singer proceeded, the circle was augmented. The sturdy seaman seated himself with calm gravity, and by the side of the youthful midshipman, listened with enthralled attention. The man whose locks were whitened, equally with the boy whose features were unmarked by the furrows of time and care, seemed to drink in the beautiful words as a healing draught.

Oh, how magical is music at such an hour! It comes to the heart like a flood of sunshine, dispelling its gathered mists, and causing high aspirations to spring into strength and beauty. The whole man is elevated above the narrowness of earth, and he seeks in thought to commune with the intelligence of a higher world, and with that Being,

> 'Who plants his footsteps in the sea,
> And rides upon the storm.'

Thus were the feelings of the listening group, when the performer, at the close of the first verse, eloquently burst forth with the words, 'There's no place like home!' An emotion was visible in all. There was a slight tremor in his voice, showing that he felt the influence of the line; and when he concluded it, his pause was longer than usual, and a deep sigh escaped him.

When he recommenced,—'An exile from home'—the agitation in those around, was merged in attention to the song, but his increased. His face was slightly averted, and the rays of the moon as they fell upon, and glistened in the tear that rested on his cheek, gave additional effect to the expression almost of agony, stamped upon his features. He was, indeed, as I knew, an exile from home,—though from what cause I never could discover,—and the smothered grief of years was now loosed, and flowed in unrestrained power over him.

tions, and make yourself uncomfortable—'steady so'—steady it is:' with regard to Yellow Jack as we calls the yellow fever, it's a devil incarnate, that's sartin—you're well and able to take your allowance in the morning, and dead as a herring 'fore night."

Such yarns were told to me and the other midshipmen during the night watch, that I can assure the reader they gave us no small alarm. Every day that we worked our day's work, and found ourselves so much nearer to the islands, did we feel as if we were so much nearer to our graves. I once spoke to O'Brien about it, and he laughed. "Peter," says he, "fear kills more people than the yellow fever, or any other complaints in the West Indies. Swinburne is an old rogue, and only laughing at you." We were now fast nearing the Island of Barbadoes, the weather was beautiful, the wind always fair; the flying fish rose in shoals, by the foaming seas, which rolled away, and roared from the bows as our swift frigate cleaved through the water; the porpoises played about us in thousands—the bonetas and dolphins at one time chased the flying fish, and at others appeared to be delighted in keeping company with the rapid vessel. In two days we were close to the island, and the men were desired to look out for land. The next morning, having hove to part of the night, land was discovered on the bow, and was reported by the mast-head man. In the course of the morning, we ran into the island, and unhappy as I was, I never can forget the sensation of admiration which I felt on closing with Needham Point to enter Carlisle Bay. The beach of such a pure dazzling white, backed by the tall green cocoanut trees waving their spreading heads to the fresh breeze, the dark blue of the sky, and the deeper blue of the transparent sea, occasionally varied into green as we passed by the coral rocks which threw their branches out from the bottom—the town opening to our view by degrees, houses after houses so neat, with their green jalousies dotting the landscapes, the fort with the colours flying, troops of officers riding down, a busy population of all colours, relieved by the whiteness of their dress. Altogether the scene realized my first ideas of fairy land, for I thought I had never witnessed any thing so beautiful. "And can this be such a dreadful place as it is described?" thought I. The sails were clewed up, the anchor was dropped to the bottom, and a salute from the ship, answered by that of the forts, added to the effect of the scene. The sails were furled, the boats lowered down, the boatswain squared the yards from the jolly boat a-head. Then as the work was over, a new scene of delight presented itself to the sight of midshipmen who had been so long upon his majesty's allowance. These were the boats which crowded around the ship, loaded with baskets of bananas, oranges, shaddocks, soursops, and every

procured the liquor was to me a mystery. When I came on board, Mr. Falcon, who, although acting captain, continued his duties as first lieutenant almost as punctually as before, asked how it was that I had allowed my men to get so tipsy. I assured him that I could not tell, that I had never allowed one to leave the watering place, or to buy any liquor: the only thing that they had to drink was a little cocoa-nut milk, which, as it was so very hot, I thought there could be no objection to. Mr. Falcon smiled and said, 'Mr. Simple, I am an old stager in the West Indies, and I'll let you into a secret. Do you know what '*sucking the monkey* means?' 'No, sir.' 'Well, then, I'll tell you; it is a term used among seamen for drinking *rum* out of *cocoa-nuts*, the milk having been poured out, and the liquor substituted Now, do you comprehend why your men are tipsy?' I stared with all my eyes, for it never would have entered into my head; and I then perceived why it was that the black woman would not give me the first cocoa-nuts which I selected. I told Mr. Falcon of this circumstance, who replied, 'Well, it was not your fault, only you must not forget it another time.'

It was my first watch that night, and Swinburne was quarter-master on deck. 'Swinburne,' said I, 'you have often been in the West Indies before, why did you not tell me that the men were '*sucking the monkey*,' when I thought that they were only drinking cocoa-nut milk?''

Swinburne chuckled, and answered, 'Why, Mr. Simple, d'ye see, it didn't become me as a shipmate to peach. It's but seldom that a poor fellow has an opportunity of making himself a 'little happy,' and it would not be fair to take away the chance. I suppose you'll never let them have cocoa-nut milk again?'

'No, that I will not; but I cannot imagine what pleasure they can find in getting so tipsy.'

'It's merely because they are not allowed to be so, sir. That's the whole story in a few words.'

'Well, I think I could cure them, if I were permitted to try.'

'I should like to hear how you'd manage that, Mr. Simple.'

'Why, I would oblige a man to drink off half a pint of liquor, and then put him by himself. I would not allow him companions to make merry with, so as to make a pleasure of intoxication. I would then wait until next morning when he was sober, and leave him alone with a racking headache until the evening, when I would give him another dose, and so on, forcing him to get drunk until he hated the smell of liquor.

"Well, Mr. Simple, it might do with some, but many of our chaps would require the dose you mention to be repeated pretty often before it would effect a cure; and what's more,

at least as much as Greenwich Hospital. But you'll soon find him out, and he'll sarve to laugh at behind his back, you know, Mr. Simple, for that's *no go* before his face.'

Captain Kearney made his appearance on board the next day. The men were mustered to receive him, and all the officers were on the quarter-deck. 'You've a fine set of marines here, Captain Falcon,' he observed: 'those I left on board of the Minerve were only fit to be *hung*: and you've a good show of reefers too; those I left in the Minerve *were not worth hanging*. If you please, I'll read my commission, if you'll order the men aft.' His commission was read, all hands with their hats off, from respect to the authority from which it proceeded. 'Now, my lads,' said Captain Kearney, addressing the ship's company, 'I've but few words to say to you. I am appointed to command this ship, and you appear to have a very good character from your late first lieutenant. All I request of you is this: Be smart, keep sober, and always *tell the truth*—that's enough. Pipe down. Gentlemen,' he continued, addressing the officers, 'I trust that we shall be good friends; and I see no reason that it should be otherwise.' He then turned away with a bow, and called his coxswain. 'Williams, you'll go on board, and tell my steward that I have promised to dine with the governor to-day, and that he must come to dress me: and, coxswain, recollect to put the sheepskin mat on the stern gratings of my gig—not the one I used to have when I was on shore in my *carriage*, but the blue one which was used for the *chariot*—you know which I mean.' I happened to look Swinburne in the face, who cocked his eye at me, as much as to say—'There he goes.' We afterwards met the officers of the Minerve, who corroborated all that Swinburne had said, although it was quite unnecessary, as we had the captain's own words every minute to satify us of the fact."

MILITARY INTELLIGENCE.

UNITED STATES TROOPS.—A detachment of one hundred and eighty United States Troops passed through Albany a few weeks since, in part composed of Infantry, destined to Fort Winnebago—the remainder being United States Dragoons recruited in New York by Lieutenant Perkins. These last, says the Albany Daily Advertiser, are a peculiarly fine body of men, being selected with the greatest care—not only as to thews and sinews, and horsemanship, but as to their moral qualifications and their general adaptation for a service requiring an unusual degree of skill, courage, coolness, and power of endurance. This portion of the detachment, under Lieutenants Peyton, and Davis, are on their way to Jefferson Barracks. The officer commanding the whole is Lieutenant Lewis N. Morris.

Midshipman, T. M. Washington. *Midshipmen*, H. Norvell, S. Larkin, Jr. E. Middleton, T. A. Jenkins, A. A. Holcomb, C. F. M. Spottswood, J. Forbes. J. W. E. Read, L. Maynard, J. McCormick, J. D. Johnston, H. P. Robertson, T. W. Gibson, G. W. Thayer. *Captain's Clerk*, J. E. Holland. *Boatswain*, G. Wilmuth. *Gunner*, J. Hayes, *Carpenter*, J. Cox. *Sail Maker*, W. Bennett. *Passengers*, Lt. Jerome Callan, *sick;* and Mid. J. Moorehead.

List of officers of the *Shark.*

Lt. Comdt. W. Boerum. *Lieuts.* H. Westcott, J. M. Berrien. *Sailing Master*, S. C. Rowan. *Purser*, A. M. D. Jackson. *Assistant Surgeon*, J. Brinckerhoff. *Midshipmen*, J. M. Lockert, F. B. Renshaw, W. L. Maury, M. L. D. Watson, J. Carroll, W. H. Adams. *Captain's Clerk*, G. Deas. *Gunner*, N. Stevenson.

ARRIVAL OF THE BRANDYWINE.—The United States Frigate Brandywine, 44, Captain J. Renshaw, arrived at New York, on Monday, July 8th, from the Mediterranean, and last from Maderia in 37 days; officers and crew all well. The following is a list of the officers attached to the Brandywine:

J. Renshaw, *Commander;* *Lieuts.* J. L. Saunders, A. Slidell, C. C. Turner, and M. Mason; W. H. Noland, *passed Midshipman;* B. Washington, *Surgeon;* G. Clymer, *Assistant do;* J. B. Cutting, *Acting Master;* T. S. English, *Capt. of Marines;* F. A. Armistead, *Lieut. do;* E. C. Canning, *Schoolmaster;* *Midshipmen*, R. P. Welch, G. F. Emmons, W. F. Barr, C. F. McIntosh, R. A. Cassin, J. C. Graham, J. J. Thruston, W. Craney, D. M'Dougal, A. W. Prevost, J. Alden, J. I. Williams, W. G. H. Robertson, J. L. Ring, J. Raynolds, *Boatswain*, N. B. Peed, *Sailmaker;* C. Boardman, *Carpenter;* T. Riley, *Gunner;* J. D. Gibson, *Purser's Steward: Passengers*, Lieuts. S. W. Le Compte, and A. J. D. Browne.

NAVY DEPARTMENT, JULY 8.—The fleet Surgeon in the Mediterranean, under date of April 4, on board the frigate United States, writes:

But one death from sickness has occurred in the squadron for three months, which was on board this ship, being the first victim of disease since leaving America.

No death has occurred in either the Constellation or the John Adams during the last three months.

Lieutenants G. P. UPSHER, and H. G. AUCHMUTY, of the Navy, arrived at New York, on the 21st July, passengers in the packet ship Sully, from Havre.

Lieutenant T. Paine, Jr. has been appointed to the command of the schr. Experiment, now at Norfolk.

The St. Louis, Capt. Newton, arrived at New York on 22d July, from the West Indies. We have no room for the list of officers.

The schooner Shark is fitting out at Norfolk, for the Mediterranean, under the command of Lieut. H. Paulding: she will not sail before September.

RESIGNATIONS.

L. P Higbee,	Midshipman,	28 June,	1833.
G. Butterfield,	"	8 July,	"
V. McCracken,	"	16 "	"
J. Barry,	Sailing Master,	9 "	"
F. S. Neville,	Lieutenant of Marines,	15 "	"

DISMISSIONS.

J. W. Graham,	Midshipman,	9 July,	"
J. C. Harker,	"	" "	"
B. S. Slye,	"	" "	"

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